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CONTENTS OF NO. V., VOL. XLIV.

ARTICLES.

ART.	PAGE
I. COTTON—COTTONIZED FLAX—FIBRILIA. Employment of Spindles—Cotton Required—Efforts to procure it—United States Production—Ultimate Deficit—Importance of Linen,.....	547
II. CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF NEW-YORK. Coasting Trade—Registration of Foreign Shipping—Free Trade,.....	553
III. HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES TARIFFS, from the first enacted, 1789, to that of 1861, inclusive—Original of Free Trade—Embargo—War—Protection and Peace—Growth of Manufactures—Successive Rise in Rates of Duty—1816, 1824, 1828—Great Excitement—Compromise—Revulsion—Restoration of Protection—Revenue Tariff—Reduction—Revulsion—Restoration—Table of Tariffs—Customs—Imports—Votes on each Tariff by States,.....	561
IV. MARINE INSURANCE STATISTICS. Summary of Lake Disasters, 1851-60—Marine Losses for March—Record of Hurricanes, Gales, &c.—Loss of Life at Sea, for March—Foreign Commerce of the State of New-York,.....	582
V. THE PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY OF THE SEA AND ITS METEOROLOGY,....	598
VI. THE COMMERCE OF NORTHERN ITALY,.....	603
VII. IRON SHIPS <i>vs.</i> WOODEN SHIPS,.....	605
VIII. THE WOOLLEN TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN,.....	608
IX. THE TIMBER TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN,.....	610
VOL. XLIV.—NO. V.	35

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

Partner and Agents—Insurance—General Average—Admiralty Law—Liabilities of Owners of Foreign Ships—Collision in the Harbor—Marine Policy—Liabilities of Ship Owners—Maritime Law—Collision—Collision at Sea—Right of Way—Detention—Copyright—Stay Law,.... 615

COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL CITIES.

Toronto, C. W.,..... 631

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

New Light Houses in Europe—Alterations in French Lights—Ianthe Shoal—Glendinning's Shoal—Dangers of the Sea Overcome—Coming of Storms—Losses on the Lakes—Screw Propellers—The Time Gun at Edinburgh—Night Signals,..... 633

POSTAL STATISTICS.

United States Revenue, by States—Registered Letters—Stamps—New-York Post Office,.... 646

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

1. Imports and Exports of Great Britain. 2. Proportion of the American Trade to the whole. 3. Rate of Interest. 4. Finances of England. 5. Manchester Chamber of Commerce and the Cultivation of Cotton. 6. General Bankrupt Law in England. 7. Fraudulent Trade Marks. 8. Extension of Admiralty Court Jurisdiction,..... 648

NEW COMMERCIAL ACTS AND REGULATIONS.

1. Duties on Tonnage. 2. The Florin. 3. Circular on the Tariff—Custom House Order—Rates of Deposits—Resolution of Congress,..... 652

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

New Silk Worms—Steam on the Welland Canal—American Sea Officers in Great Britain—Quick Voyage—Foreign Commerce of New-York—Trade of the United States—Wool Trade of Great Britain,..... 657

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

The Turkish Tariff—Free Ports in Canada—Notice to Mariners—Stop Law of Tennessee,.... 661

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

State of Business—Money in Banks—Low Price of—Goods in Bond—Importation—Supply—Loans—War Movement—City Loans—Treasury Notes—Rates of Money—Bills of Exchange—Specie Receipts—Exports—Assay Office—Mint—Imports for March—Dry Goods Imports,.... 665

RAIL-ROAD AND CANAL STATISTICS.

Rail-Roads in North America,..... 672

NOTICE.—Owing to the large space occupied in this Number by various Commercial Reports, several departments of statistics, with the usual Reviews of New Books, are necessarily postponed to our next Number.

THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

MAY, 1861.

COTTON—COTTONIZED FLAX—FIBRILIA.

THE great manufacturing fact which stands head and shoulders above all other facts, and forces itself upon the attention of the observer, like the sun at noon-day, is that in sixty years the manufacture of cotton has grown up to employ in the United States and Western Europe 40,000,000 spindles in the production of yarn. Towards the close of the last century, one person operated one spindle; the machines of the present day, therefore, do the work of 40,000,000 spinners, and the attendant labor in the perfection of the manufacture employs 1,500,000 persons. To supply raw material for those spindles, there was last year produced in the United States 4,600,000 bales, and there was derived from India 573,000 bales; from Brazil, 106,000 bales; West Indies, 47,100 bales; Egypt, 158,000 bales; total, 5,484,000 bales. Of this quantity, 87 per cent. was from the United States, 10 per cent. from India, and the 3 per cent. from other countries. Of the value, \$300,000,000, the United States stood for 90 per cent. The demand for the material has grown in the double ratio of the increasing numbers, and the improving condition or the means of the people. The increased quantity annually required to meet the demand is now equal to the whole crop of but a few years since. It was recently stated before the Manchester Cotton Supply Association, that the number of spindles increased in Europe and America at the rate of 6,000,000 per annum. At the rate of 100 pounds of cotton per spindle per annum, there is required to supply these spindles 810,000 bales per annum, or a quantity equal to the whole United States crop of 1830. There are, then, these prominent facts:—1st. That in the present century, the demand for cotton has increased from comparatively nothing to, in round numbers, 5,500,000 bales per annum. 2d. That it now increases at the rate of 800,000 bales per annum, which would, in ten years, give a demand for 13,500,000 bales. 3d. Up to this time, nearly the whole increase in quantity has been supplied by the United States, also the only advance in quality. These facts have been growing in importance before the eyes of

manufacturers and statesmen during the last 25 years, and the most earnest attention has been directed to the means of insuring a future sufficient supply, but late events have given a new interest to this subject. The necessity of increased sources of supply is based upon the idea of growing dependence upon the Southern States. Those who reflect upon the matter will, however, observe that the question of dependence upon this or that country is altogether secondary, since, with the rail-road pace at which the demand grows, it will soon altogether exceed the capacity of even the Southern States to supply it. The question of drawing supplies from other countries has been earnestly discussed and vigorously acted upon during more than 30 years. Vast sums of money have been fruitlessly expended in the prosecution of these schemes. Disappointment has attended all. In the mean time, France and Western Europe have grown to demand more cotton annually than England required when these enterprises were first undertaken. The French, to meet the same difficulty, offered enormous prizes to produce cotton in Algeria. The produce was bought up at premium prices; the fabric formed from it was prepared with greatest care at Rouen, and ostentatiously paraded at the Paris Exhibition. All ended in unmistakable failure. Cotton of the American quality is said to grow in Africa, but industry of the American quality is in vain sought in that country. After considering all the accounts from that quarter, and comparing them with similar reports of 40 years' standing, we draw from them but little hope. The English have made Herculean efforts in India, but the results have convinced the most sanguine practical men that more Surat cotton only can be expected thence. One of the highest Manchester authorities concludes a valuable report as follows: "If India were to send us 2,000,000 bales of cotton per annum, the *desideratum* would not be supplied, and our perilous problem would be still unsolved. We should be as dependent upon America as ever." It has been sufficiently demonstrated, however, that the growth of cotton in India cannot be much increased, and China depends largely upon the India surplus. The efforts of the India Company have not been few or inefficient. In 1840 the Hon. East India Company sent an agent to the United States, with a *carte blanche* as to expenses. He engaged the services of ten experienced American cotton-growers, taken from the best cotton districts of the country. Several were taken from Mississippi, two from Louisiana, three from Alabama and two or three from Georgia. They were engaged at good salaries, and bound to remain in India five years each. They were supplied with large quantities of the best American seed, cotton gins, ploughs, hoes, cotton presses, and every possible appliance calculated to insure success. They passed through England, visited Manchester, and were made acquainted with the views and wants of the spinners. They were sent overland to India, and distributed in the best cotton districts to be found in that vast region. They were supplied with all the laborers they wanted at three cents per day each, they subsisting on rice as food. One of the planters, Mr. TERRY, stated that in Mississippi one hand could cultivate five acres, make five bales of cotton, and his own provisions. To do the same work in India, it required three weakly Asiatics to the acre. Mr. TERRY was sent up to the Bundelcund district, near the base of the Himalaya Mountains. When he first reached this locality, he planted, near the close of the rainy season, one thousand acres in cotton.

The plant came up, grew well, bloomed and boiled favorably; but just at this stage in its growth the drought set in, the heavens seemed turned to brass, and not a drop of rain fell in ninety days. His plants withered, the leaves dried up, blossoms fell off, and the result was, that he only gathered 50 pounds of cotton to the acre, against about 1,000 to 1,200 pounds in Mississippi. This course was invariable during five years, at the end of which time the project was abandoned. The report of the Bombay Chamber of Commerce, contained in this magazine for April, 1861, contains some interesting matter upon this subject.

Mr. F., one of the American cotton-growers who went to India, and was stationed at Goruckpore, put two hundred acres in cotton, from which he gathered only two hundred pounds of clean cotton. The most those sent to Coimbatore could do was to raise, in a favorable year, two hundred pounds of seed cotton to the acre—equal to about fifty pounds of clean cotton. The most Mr. T. could do was to raise, the first year, ten pounds of clean cotton from American cotton seed of the Mexican variety, (the best,) and seventy pounds of native cotton to the acre. He says the American seed carried out from Rodney, (the best in America,) deteriorated every year; the staple or fiber growing shorter, while the yield grew less. It is his firm conviction that if the American seed be planted over and over again in the same soil, in India, in five years it will totally cease to mature any cotton whatever. He also says, by changing it to other districts, it may be made to yield something a few years longer but would ultimately run out.

The climate of India is an insuperable bar to the growth of the proper variety of cotton. Turkey (in Europe and in Asia Minor) has been spoken of by missionaries and others as a suitable place for the growth of cotton. Dr. DAVIS, of South Carolina, went to Asia Minor some years since, under the auspices of the Turkish government, to engage in its cultivation, and had every facility granted him of means and labor, such as it was, but the climate was too much for his experiments. Where he found a locality hot enough to grow cotton, there was not rain enough to render even grain or grass a reliable crop. The Jews in Syria were often subjected to famines for the want of rain, and "the early and the latter rains" were celebrated as blessings. The doctor failed, and returned with some interesting specimens of Eastern goats as mementoes of his experiments.

These were events of twenty years since, and they have been followed by numberless efforts at irrigation, and other enterprises in various localities, to produce the desired results, but always with the same result. It is to be borne in mind that this great American monopoly, which has been so overshadowing, has been the growth of sixty years. When we consider the vastness of the results, this appears to be a very short time in which to bring them about; nevertheless, if we are to look forward sixty years, as the period in which a rival is to be built up, what will be the state of the demand then? We have shown that this demand is by no means stationary, but proceeds at the rate of a large crop every year. The United States' capacity to produce is not now limited, but the limit must come, and the great question is, how will the future wants of the world be supplied, when the capacity of the South to produce cotton is reached? What rival can be built up that will be able to supply the increasing excess of annual demand over production? The United States crop in 1820 was 425,000 bales; in 1830, 870,415 bales; in 1840,

2,177,532 bales; in 1850, 2,796,706 bales; in 1860, 4,600,000 bales. The crop of 1840 sold at $8\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound; and that of 1860, which was more than double in quantity, at $10\frac{1}{2}$ cents. In the last ten years the crop has increased $67\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and will probably double in the next ten years; but still falling short of the demand. It is plain that a rival cotton-growing country cannot, in any reasonable time, lessen the importance of American cotton. Efforts have, however, been made in another direction, viz., to find a substitute for cotton. Flax would long since have rivalled it had it been adapted to machine spinning. That it has not been, has, it is alleged, been owing to the faulty manner in which it has been cured. This difficulty is now said to be so far overcome that flax comes in direct rivalry with cotton as a raw material. In relation to this interesting subject we quote from an address of STEPHEN M. ALLEN, Esq., before the Legislative Society of Massachusetts:

In the year 1854, I became fully satisfied that flax could be practically cottonized for working on the ordinary cotton machinery, and renewed my experiments in view of establishing factories for its manufacture on the Hydraulic Canal at Niagara Falls, in which enterprise I was then engaged. It was not, however, till the winter and spring of 1857 that I was enabled to complete my plans for a set of machinery which would secure the manufacture of the article on a large scale. The difficulties also attending the control and extraction of the glutinous matter cementing the fibers together, were quite extensive and perplexing; and it was with much satisfaction that in the spring of that year I sent off from Niagara Falls the first bale of tow to the bleachery of Mr. GEORGE W. BROWN, at East Greenwich, R. I., for further experiments on a larger scale. In 1858, machinery was set up at East Greenwich of such kinds as could readily be had, and which we supposed would meet our requirements; and during the summer a very good article of fibrilia was made, and used with cotton and wool in their respective branches of manufacture. These experiments convinced us that a moderate capital, judiciously employed, would produce an article of manufacture equal to cotton, the material for which could be raised in any northern climate; and that machinery could be adapted to the different stages of the growth and preparation of the raw material which would pay the farmer a suitable profit for his crop, and render his labor easier than on an ordinary crop of corn or wheat. Some difficulties arose in the working of some parts of our machinery, and particularly in the breaking of the straw and reducing the fiber to a proper length of staple, which were remedied by the use of an invention of Mr. STEPHEN RANDALL, of Centreville, R. I., to whom, together with Messrs. A. Sisson & Co., we are much indebted for the present perfect machinery we are now working. Mr. RANDALL has had considerable experience in the manufacture of flax, under the old method, and for many years has believed it a coming substitute for or co-worker with cotton. In the spring of last year the old experimental machinery, as well as a new set, was brought to Watertown in this State, and, through the co-operation of some enterprising and wealthy merchants of Boston, it was set up for a final test, before a large and suitable factory should be erected for the purpose of manufacturing flax or hemp on a large scale. These experiments were perfectly satisfactory, and the machinery is now in progress of construction for other mills in different parts of New-England and the West. Thus we are enabled to give to

the world, as we think, a new article of manufacture, much desired and needed at the present time, the fiber of which can be grown on any soil or in any climate—affording the agriculturist sufficient profit to induce him to cultivate it extensively, while the manufacturer and consumer will gain by its adoption.

It spins and weaves readily on either cotton or woollen machinery, mixed with either of those substances, in small or large proportion. The length of its fiber can be adapted to either cotton or wool, while the fabric thus made is stronger and more beautiful, and the cost is not increased.

The specimens which I present to you this evening compose many tests, both in spinning and weaving, and the proportions of flax in each are different. With the stockings, there is 25 per cent. of fibrilia, with 75 per cent. of fine wool; and the best judges pronounce the stockings finer, softer and better for durability than though of all wool. The sateen has 25 per cent. of fibrilia in the filling, the warp being all cotton. The jeans are 40 per cent. fibrilia, 40 per cent. cotton and 20 per cent. of wool. The yarns are half cotton and half fibrilia; while the prints are from 25 to 50 per cent. of fibrilia. It will be observed that they finish with a brighter color than those printed upon pure cotton cloth. One of these specimens was printed upon one of the first set of rollers or power-printing machines ever worked in this country; and to me it has an abiding interest, from the fact that its revolutions were familiar to my watch for two years of my early youth, between the ages of nine and eleven.

Flax was one of the first cultivated products of New-England after the arrival of the Pilgrims at Plymouth. The necessities for clothing, which were then almost wholly supplied from native flax and wool, led the first settlers to cultivate the plant with much care and success. The process, however, both of raising and manufacturing the fiber was the same as used in Egypt, Rome and Britain; and, in those early days, the supply was governed by the wants of each individual family, who, as a general thing, raised and manufactured what they needed within the limits of their own farms and cottages.

As early as 1638, three brothers, GILMAN, came over from England to enter into manufactures, and settled at Exeter, New-Hampshire. Two of them went back again for mill-gear, but were both lost at sea. The other remaining, reared a large family, who were intimately connected with the early manufactures of that State, and where their descendants have ever been prominent leaders in the progressive elements of the Granite State.

In 1718 a colony of Scotch-Irish came to New-England from Londonderry, in Ireland, and settled in New-Hampshire, naming their town after that from which they had emigrated in the old country. They were mostly manufacturers of flax at home, and soon set up the same business in the land of their adoption. They were more successful than any subsequent company organized for this branch of manufacturing, and in a few years their reputation was established as producing the best linen in America. As early as 1748, their fame in this branch of business was so universal, that the Colonial legislature provided protection for their goods from counterfeit, by giving them an exclusive stamp for their fabrics.

In 1760 there lived on the banks of the Merrimac a young farmer, a descendant of the before-named GILMAN, of Exeter, who was engaged, like many others throughout New-England, in the cultivation and manufacture of flax. At a later period, but before the Revolution, he had carried his work on to much success, and had become what was termed in those days quite "*fore-handed*." Even at that period the old process of manufacturing was used, and the rotting, and especially the breaking of the flax, was attended with great labor—all by hand-work. At Londonderry they carried their cloth to market on horseback, and it was no uncommon occurrence to see five or six of the girls of the neighborhood start off thus, each with a horse and pillion loaded with rolls of cloth, made by their own hands, and go fifty, seventy-five, and even one hundred and twenty miles, to Portsmouth, Boston and Springfield, to exchange them for family comforts not to be had in the country stores. When the business increased beyond the convenient limits of the farmhouse, it was removed to outbuildings raised for the purpose, and thus it was carried on. In time, a race was cut on the mountain-side, the stream was turned, and a mill established, which answered the double purpose of grinding grain and turning the flax-wheels. This march of improvement on the part of Col. GILMAN was received with much distrust by his neighbors. One of them offered to furnish all the flax spun in that mill gratis; another, doubting his ability to make water run in that ditch, which, to the eye, had the appearance of flowing up hill, said he would agree to eat all the meal as fast as it could be ground. The first linen-wheel moved by water-power in America, so far as I can learn, was established at this spot in 1795. About this time a new impetus was given to the business of manufactures, by mixing the yarn of flax and cotton together in colors, and thus producing by the loom a new article of homespun commerce. This process was quite successful, and was adopted by most of the flax manufacturers of New-England.

By accident, rather than design, a discovery was made in the mill, in a practical substitute for rotting the flax straw, by immersing it in the running water of the mountain stream. A bundle of flax-straw having fallen in, and remaining for some time, it was taken out in a supposed ruined condition, and handed over to the youngest daughter for experiment. It proved to make a finer linen thread than any before seen in their experience, and this fact led to further successful experiments, which led to the abandonment of the former rotting process altogether. In England this is done in pools, in which the water is stagnant. It was said that the water in this White Mountain brook was, in old times, very poisonous to animals, and that split-footed beasts that drank of it would not live two years, unless they were watered elsewhere; and this was attributed to an Indian curse. It has since been ascertained, from an analytical examination, that the water contained mineral properties, which were turned to good account in the rotting of flax.

The first attempts to prepare flax, so as to resemble cotton in appearance and texture, were made in Europe, upwards of one hundred years ago. Experiments were made by PALMQUIST, in the year 1745. We find in the Swedish transactions for the year 1747, a description of the method and agencies employed for the purpose; but they proved too tedious and imperfect for practical use. In 1775 Lady MOIRA prepared specimens from both hemp and flax fiber, so as to resemble cotton; which was

followed by the experiments of Baron MEIDINGIN, in 1777; by those of HAAG, in 1788; by those of KREUTZER, in 1801; by those of GOBELL, in 1803; by those of STADLER, HAUFFNER and SEGALLA, in 1811; and by those of SOUKOU, in 1816. All the above experiments, together with those of a more recent date in Europe, have failed of a practical result.

Chevalier CLAUSSEN, in his experiments in 1851, electrified the manufacturing world by his announcement that flax could be manufactured, under his process, into a cotton suitable for practical spinning and weaving on the ordinary cotton machinery. His plan of treating the straw from which the fiber was obtained was: 1st. By steeping the fiber alone in a solution of caustic soda, or other solution of like properties, and then in a bath of a diluted sulphuric or other acid. 2d. By again submitting the fiber to the same bath, with the addition of fumes of sulphur. 3d. Saturating them with a solution of bi-carbonate of soda, or any other like agent, and then decomposing such salt, however such decomposition may be affected. 4th. By cutting the fiber into short lengths for spinning. 5th. By the mode of splitting the fiber by gaseous expansion. Mr. KNOWLES' process, though not technically the same, employs chemical means equally impracticable to produce a proper result.

Both of these processes failed from about the same cause. 1st. By the impracticable mode of treating the flax straw, by laborious and expensive chemical action, which would inevitably have to be done on the farm where the flax grew, thereby necessitating every farmer to become a chemist. 2d. By submitting the fiber to hot acids or alkalies, before a previous simple and more natural preparation, without which it can never be properly disintegrated or refined for spinning as cotton. 3d. By cutting the fiber as described in their patents, which, of itself, would spoil it, either for refining or spinning. 4th. By destroying the natural strength and beauty of the fiber, by unnatural, laborious and chemical processes.

The old theory that the fibril of flax was some twenty-four to thirty inches in length, instead of less than two inches, and that it was necessary that it should be rotted before it could be prepared for spinning, has led most of the manufacturers astray in past ages, and this persistency has led to the great expenditure in the manufacture of linen, which has followed it from century to century. A chemical examination of the cementing compound which holds the fiber together, one fibril overlaying another, like the shingle upon the roof of the house, each acting as a conductor from the air without to the lungs of the stalk within, would have proved that the process of fermenting or rotting the straw, or the fiber, or the boiling it with alkalies, would have entirely changed many of the constituents of that compound, and rendered them indissoluble, except at such strength as to injure the durability of the fiber.

In the process now in use in Europe for bleaching linen after it is woven, there is more labor and expense than in the production of the cloth before you, from the time the straw left the field to its present state. The difference in the natural construction of the cotton and flax fiber is very great; one is the covering of a seed, the other of the stalk to which it belongs. The cotton fiber has transmitted its glutinous compound to its seed, and is but a bleached skeleton of what it was; flat, like a ribbon, it coils in being torn from its position, and, as a conse-

quence, when ready for use, it presents an apparent serrated edge. The fiber of flax, on the contrary, is tubular, and as it lays upon its stalk, each fibril overlaps another, giving the appearance of one continuous thread. This tube is not destroyed in the process of manufacture, but, unlike cotton, retains both within and on the outer surface the lees of the oil and sap, which it helps transmit to the ripening seed while on the original stem. This, when dry, forms the cementing compound so hard to remove, which has baffled the manufacturer in past ages, and, in reality, has controlled the form of machinery in use for its manufacture. When dealt with naturally and simply, it is readily removed or controlled. It requires, however, both a mechanical and chemical process combined; neither will do it alone.

When the flax is nearly ripe in the field, it may be cut with an ordinary scythe or mowing machine, and should be cured like hay. Particular attention should be given to stacking or housing the straw as soon as properly cured. The seed may be threshed by an ordinary threshing machine, as it does not injure the fiber for our purpose by its becoming tangled. It should then be broken and scutched by RANDALL'S machines, and the lint thus saved, which had been reduced to a uniform staple, may be baled and sent to the factory. A brake and scutcher may be turned with much less power than the ordinary threshing machine, and one of each should be owned in every neighborhood where flax is raised to any extent. The seed will average from fifteen to twenty bushels per acre, and is worth about one dollar and fifty cents per bushel. The lint or tow yields from unrotted straw from five hundred to one thousand pounds per acre, and is worth, for making fibrilia or flax cotton, when properly cleaned, from two to four cents per pound.

Farmers at the West now raise flax for the seed alone, feeding the straw to their cattle, or throwing it away. If the production of the seed will pay the agriculturist for raising the flax, the saving of the fiber will make it one of the most valuable crops grown in the country. When the straw is broken in the manner before described, the shove or woody part remaining becomes a valuable food for farm stock. The seed will of course be sold to the oil-mill, but the oil-cake should be returned for consumption on the farm, which, together with the shove and flax-roots left in the ground, will reproduce in the soil, with other ordinary dressing, all that the previous crop has taken away. The manufacturer can pay the before-named prices for the raw flax or tow, and produce fibrilia in perfection for spinning, half and half with cotton, so as to compete with the price of cotton, as it has ranged the last five years. In such case the North could easily raise its own fiber for manufactures, as well as export the full amount of the present cotton crop of the United States for foreign consumption. The State of New-York could readily spare four millions from its thirteen millions acres of tilled land for such a purpose, and thus produce a crop sufficient to match the present cotton crop of the United States. Each State in the Union is now able to produce more pounds of fibrilia than is used of cotton, at the present time, in any State of the Confederation.

The Americans use more linen per head than any other nation, by a large proportion; and the sum annually expended for importations of this article is some \$15,000,000.

The world is now suffering for clothing, and it would take twenty-five

million bales of cotton per annum to supply the natural demand, if all could share equally in its distribution. This demand has to be supplied with less than six million bales at the present time.

Thus a new and improved character has been given to flax, and its use finds a corresponding demand with the manufacturer and the world. When the fiber comes from the farm and the brake, suited for cottonizing, we call it linter, and the same can be cottonized wherever the machinery may be set up. Each spinning and weaving mill can add the necessary amount of machinery to work fibrilia, which, at the present time, can be used to the best advantage by mixing the same from one-quarter to three-quarters with cotton or wool. It improves the fabric of the cloth in either, if the proportions are suited to the article made. The process of cottonizing is simple compared to the old system of subduing flax. The first is what we call the soluble process, and consists in the proper extraction of the glumien which cements the fiber together, after which the same may be bleached or colored. The second is the mechanical process, which consists in separating the fibers which have been detached from each other by the soluble process, and reducing them to their original fibrils as near as may be, according to the length of staple required, which, for spinning, must be of uniform length. This is readily accomplished by the machinery for the purpose in connection with the soluble process, and the fiber is thus converted to a fine white cotton or wool, at a price below the cost of either, while it will spin or weave on either cotton or woollen machinery. The old method of extracting the glumien from linen after it was woven was a very tedious one, and cost more than the whole process of cottonizing flax under the new system. This, added to the great cost of preparing and spinning flax under the old method, accounts for the high cost of linen in use. The old process, according to a late English publication, is in thirty-six parts, occupying more than six weeks, and is as follows:

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Steeping 12 hours in cold water. | 18. Washed. |
| 2. The whole is then boiled. | 19. Exposed on grass from 2 to 4 days. |
| 3. Washed in pure water. | 20. Scald with soap. |
| 4. Boiled 12 hours in carbonate of soda, caustic lye, gumfustic, or resinous soap. | 21. Washed. |
| 5. Exposed on grass from 4 to 8 days. | 22. Rubbed. |
| 6. Boiled as before. | 23. Washed. |
| 7. Washed. | 24. Exposed on grass. |
| 8. Exposed on grass. | 25. Steeped in sulphuric acid. |
| 9. Boiled. | 26. Washed. |
| 10. Washed. | 27. Bleaching liquor. |
| 11. Exposed on grass. | 28. Washed. |
| 12. Steeped in vitriol, sp. gr. 1.02. | 29. Scald. |
| 13. Washed. | 30. Washed. |
| 14. Boiled. | 31. Exposed on grass. |
| 15. Exposed on grass. | 32. Steeped in sulphuric acid. |
| 16. Scald. | 33. Washed. |
| 17. Soaped and rubbed. | 34. Bleaching liquor. |
| | 35. Washed. |
| | 36. Dried. |

This great cost arises, as a matter of course, from the tedious mode of treatment which has been pursued in the preparation of flax for the last three thousand years: 1. The pulling, rippling, rotting and breaking process has been quite too expensive and troublesome to the farmer to enable him to make a large or profitable crop. 2. The use of the fiber

in long line before the glumien was extracted, which made it so harsh and hard that it could not be controlled by pressing and spinning without great labor, and the use of warm water to soften the fiber as it passed to the spindle. An entire disregard of the character of the glumien or cementing compound seems to have been had, as well as to the natural fibrils of the flax plant, which are only from one to two inches long, and which form the long fibers used in the long line process of manufacture. This cementing compound is composed of many conflicting elements, which will not, as a whole, bear any one specific treatment, and produce the general object desired. For instance, the boiling the fiber at first is sure to set or coagulate the albumen which forms one part of the glumien in the fiber; and the same can never after be solved by any simple process. Like the white of an egg, the longer it is boiled the harder it grows. Again, the gluten, which forms another part of this compound, cannot be solved after it has been boiled in alkali, but is precipitated, a dry and hard substance, on the external tube of the fibril, which is ever after difficult to manage. Many of the other ingredients of the cementing compound are subject to and are affected by the same laws; and hence the treatment as a whole has never been according to nature. The dew-rotting process itself produces some of these evils in the fiber, and should be avoided as much as possible.

The present process is very simple in both the soluble and mechanical departments, and is according to nature. By the use of one of RANDALL's brakes, the farmer can send his fiber baled to market cheaper than he could raise, pull and rot the straw in the old way, to say nothing of the saving of the shives for fodder, and the value of the roots left in the soil for dressing. The manufacturer can cottonize the fiber, as before-mentioned, at far less cost than is expended in the old bleaching process, while the system is one simple in itself, and follows the natural laws of its character throughout. The old process, in all respects, has been laid aside. Even the attempts at cottonizing the fiber which have been made this last century have been found valueless in a practical sense.

Fibrilia can be made from hemp, jute, china grass, and many other fibers; the character of the minute fibrils in each being about the same for spinning, though the cost and character of the article will vary some in each case. Some of the common weeds and shrubs which grow plentifully in all parts of the country make a good fiber for spinning and for paper, and there is every reason to suppose that they may yet be brought into practical use. A very good fiber may be made from the stalk of the cotton-plant of the South; but experience has not proved the certainty and value of the production. Hemp of itself can be made more valuable for this purpose than for any other, though the plant must be prepared for use like flax, before it has been rotted under the old process. The fibrils of all these plants are tubular like flax and wool.

The fiber of flax, as well as the present manufacture of linen, is entirely different from that of cotton. The mechanical structure of the cotton fiber is flat and ribbon-like, with the appearance under the microscope of having small openings between the fibrils like net-work. These fibers become coiled when torn from the seed which they cover, and hence have had the appearance, when laid between the discs of the glass, of a serrated edge. It is white. The oil and sap, or any coloring matter that pervades the fiber in its younger or greener state, becomes absorbed by

the ripening seed, leaving it bleached and dry, when in a state to gather for market. The natural length of the fiber is from one to two inches. The ginning process, which in a measure separates the seed from the fiber, does not entirely clean it; and when it comes to the mill, various processes are resorted to, occasioning a loss of some ten or fifteen per cent., to bring it into a condition to spin. The porous structure of the fiber opens it to the action of acids, alkalies or vaporous influences, which cause a more rapid decay than in flax, whether used in thread or cloth. Its body, unprotected by resinous or glutinous substances, which would cause it to mingle with interlacing strands of parallel filaments, falls quicker to decay than those fibrous substances of the nature of flax, which, in every stage of manufacture or wear, become more and more cemented together. Color, attaching itself to the cotton fiber more by external attraction and cohesion than in tubular fibrils, does not stand so well as in flax or wool, which absorb the globules within their capillary cells. The larger portion of the coloring particles, as a consequence, soon becomes removed by exposure to washing and to wear, and show but faintly the colors given in other fibers which are tubular, and whose transparency forms so many prisms to separate the rays of light which strike them, and which, reflecting each other, ever present a bright and beautiful color to the external eye.

The objects sought to be obtained in producing fibrilia are, to bring out a practical substitute for cotton, to a certain extent, which may be grown in the Northern States, and which may equalize the agricultural with the mechanical and commercial interests of New-England. This would of itself change the whole character and sentiment of the Southern States, and naturally lead them into manufactures and commerce, which they need at the present time to establish and maintain an equilibrium with the North. Equalized thus in general interests of domestic industry, both parts of the country will be better off; and the harmony which would not always exist under a different state of things will be fully established. The United States furnishes one of the most advanced nationalities on the face of the globe, and her natural power of production and recuperation will ever sustain all the population she may foster within her broad arms. To bind these elements together, and keep them in harmony with real progress, there must be peace as well as plenty, concord as well as industry; and no section of the country should demand an injustice of the other. It is to be hoped that the United States may soon realize a great benefit from an increased culture of flax, and be enabled to supply its own seed, which forms a very large item in her present importations.

The production of flax, according to the latest census, (1850,) was 7,709,676 lbs.; of which 2,100,116 lbs. were raised in Kentucky; 1,000,450 in Virginia and 940,577 in New-York; and of flax seed, 562,307 bushels; of which 75,801 bushels were raised in Kentucky; 53,318 in Virginia and 57,963 in New-York. The amount of flax raised in the United States in 1858 was estimated at 8,000,000 lbs.

The imports of unmanufactured flax during the year ending June 30, 1858, were valued at \$197,934.

Linseed is the largest article of import from Calcutta, and has increased more rapidly than any other. In 1841, the shipments from Calcutta to the United States were only 27,000 bags; but in 1857 the imports were

871,000 bags. Since 1850, the increase in the import of linseed has been 25 per cent. each year, and if it continues to increase in the same ratio for ten years to come, it would reach almost a fabulous figure in 1870.

The entire import into the country for four years past has been as follows: 1856, 505,000 bags; 1857, 871,663 bags; 1858; 498,250 bags; 1859, 758,228 bags.

The above includes several cargoes of Bombay seed. This gives an average importation of seed, for the past four years, of 650,000 bags per year. The consumption of the country the past year has been 756,969 bags. This is equal to five-and-a-half million gallons of linseed oil, and 50,000 tons of linseed cake.

THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF NEW-YORK.

THE COASTING TRADE—REGISTRATION OF FOREIGN SHIPPING—FREE TRADE.

THE regular monthly meeting of the Chamber took place Thursday, April 4th, at their rooms, corner of Cedar and William streets, and the attendance was more than usually large. The President, PELETIAH PERIT, in the chair.

The following gentlemen, nominated March 7th, were this day elected members of the Chamber:

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Location.</i>	<i>Nominated by</i>
CHARLES W. COPELAND,	122 Broadway,	CALEB BARSTOW.
ABRAM S. HEWITT,	17 Burling Slip,	WILSON G. HUNT.
WILLIAM L. KING,	101 John-street,	I. SMITH HOMANS.
CHARLES SQUIRE, JR.,	10 Bridge-street,	ROYAL PHELPS.

ARCHIBALD GRACIE, Esq., was elected by ballot a member of the Committee of Arbitration, in place of H. W. T. MALI, whose time had expired.

The president informed the Chamber that the report that the legislature had passed a bill conferring judicial powers on the Arbitration Committee was erroneous. As yet it had only passed one house, and not the other.

Mr. OPDYKE, in answer to an inquiry from the chair, stated that the Committee on Quarantine had nothing further to report. The remonstrance had not been prepared, not having been deemed necessary.

The special order of the day was next taken up, viz., the majority and minority reports of the special committee on the coasting and lake trade. The majority report being signed by Captain E. NYE, (Chairman,) WILLIAM T. COLEMAN, F. W. JONES, OLIVER SLATE, JR. The minority report was made by Mr. WILLIAM NELSON.

Remarks of WILLIAM NELSON on the Coasting Trade, &c.

A single fact might satisfy gentlemen that there would be very little risk in opening our coasting trade to foreign vessels. Of all the ships which are constantly loading at this port, for India, China, Australia, east and west coasts of South America, I think I am safe in saying, that not one in one hundred of them is foreign, although they have as much right to load here for those places as our own ships. I might go further, and say, that I believe hardly an instance can be named of a foreign vessel loading here for the places I have mentioned. Why then should we be afraid of any great competition if we should open our coasting trade to California?

Some years ago, England threw open her extensive colonial carrying trade to the ships of all nations. Her object in doing so, no doubt, was to benefit her own citi-

zens generally, by the reduction in freights, which would naturally be produced by competition. Our own ships availed themselves of the privilege, to the profit and advantage of many of them; and it would be unworthy of a great nation like the United States, to be anxious to grasp every thing and unwilling to reciprocate. We have no colonies, and, therefore, have nothing to give in return but our coasting trade, which it appears to me would be made but little use of by foreign vessels.

There is a constant cry that England is monopolizing nearly the whole of the profitable portion of the carrying trade between Great Britain and the United States. Now I think the remedy for that is, that as we cannot or will not build suitable steamers for ourselves, we should be allowed to purchase foreign steamers and place them under the United States flag, and then I have no doubt we can run them and manage them as well as the English people, and have a fair share of the trade for ourselves.

Mr. JOHN H. BROWER made some lengthy remarks in reference to the objects of Mr. LINDSAY's mission—the coasting trade, English steamers, &c.

Captain NYE said that Mr. LINDSAY, when he spoke to the Chamber, proposed the opening of the coasting trade and the California trade. If this were opened, there would soon be a line of steamers running from Victoria to Panama, over 7,500 miles along the Pacific coast. These vessels would receive subsidies from the British government, and carry mails and passengers. As our government had given up granting subsidies, he would recommend that we hold on to the coasting trade, at least until we were able to build iron ships; then we might be in a better position to compete with Great Britain.

After some further remarks from Mr. NELSON, Mr. SNOW said, that in the South Mr. LINDSAY's doctrine was about to go into practice. He would, therefore, move that the present committee be dissolved, that a new committee be organized to make a new report more in accordance with the present position of the country and what it required. If either of the reports were adopted, he would vote for that of the minority.

ROYAL PHELPS said, that the majority report had taken a much wider range than the resolution creating the committee warranted. This question of coasting trade had been brought before the Chamber as the result of several interviews held by the Executive Committee of the Chamber with the Honorable Mr. LINDSAY, a member of the British Parliament. At those interviews, Mr. LINDSAY had become convinced that no measure for throwing open the entire coasting trade of the United States could be carried in this Chamber, and both Mr. LINDSAY and the committee then agreed to limit the discussion to the carrying trade between the Atlantic and Pacific ports. This Chamber was well aware of the liberality the British government had shown to foreign shipping, in throwing open the carrying trade between the mother country and her colonies, as well as the inter-colonial trade; that our ships now traded as freely between Calcutta, Bombay, Ceylon, &c., as British ships, and he could not for a moment believe that this Chamber, in which the shipping interest was so largely represented, would hesitate to grant this small boon to British shipping. Mr. PHELPS particularly urged this course, because, after all, it was not a vote which was going to make a law, or even recommend it to our own government, but merely a simple expression of the opinion of the New-York Chamber of Commerce, elicited at the courteous solicitation of one of England's commercial representatives. Mr. PHELPS added, that as he could not now vote either for the majority or minority reports, he should do so, if during this debate a proper opportunity presented itself.

Mr. PHELPS then offered the following resolution: "That in view of the great advantages which have accrued to American shipping from the liberality of the government of Great Britain, in giving us a perfect equality with her own ships in all her colonial and coasting trade, this Chamber would see with satisfaction such a modification of our coasting trade regulations as would concede to foreign ships all the privileges of our own ships, in the trade between the Atlantic and Pacific ports of the United States by way of Cape Horn."

In regard to the other part of the majority report, viz., that referring to the registration of foreign-built ships, Mr. PHELPS might not have interfered with it had the subject related to wooden ships only, for he believed that in timber and ship-carpenters America had nothing to fear from any nation, but when we come to compete in iron and blacksmiths, the case was very different, and although we might in time be able to build this kind of ships, it was clear we could not do it now; and the question, therefore, was whether we should do it for an indefinite number of years, till by augmented population we could reduce the price of both material and labor, or whether we should allow our countrymen to procure iron ships, where they could be got cheapest; and in this connection we should not lose sight of the fact, that, in adopting the "sit still policy," we should not only have our noble and once unrivalled packet ships driven from the ocean by the iron screw propellers, but that we should have the mortification of witnessing the destruction of the school of one of our most valuable class of citizens, viz., the master's mates of American vessels. Mr. PHELPS then offered the further following resolution, viz.: "That in the opinion of this Chamber it is desirable, for the best interests of trade and commerce, that the law of the United States entitling vessels to registry should be so modified as to allow American citizens to obtain the United States flag for foreign-built iron ships, whether steamers or sailing vessels, the same as if built in the United States."

Mr. ORDYKE coincided with the views of the last speaker, but he thought neither report came up to the question in point. He understood the subject referred to the committee was simply the coasting trade between the Atlantic and the Pacific; but since the Chamber had accepted the reports, the whole subject was before the Chamber. The proposition of Mr. LINDSAY was liberal and founded on just principles of reciprocity; and in his opinion the majority report did not fairly state or deal with it, nor did that of the minority.

After further remarks from Captain NYE,

Mr. BROWER said the merchants of New-York, as a mass, were in favor of free trade. Open the door for free trade; then admit foreign ships to the coasting trade, but not before.

Some further debate ensued, after which Captain MARSHALL said the country was not in a fit position to adopt either of the reports, nor did he think the Chamber was. He would, therefore, move that the consideration of the matter be indefinitely postponed. Adopted with but one or two dissenting voices.

The following nominations were made April 4, for membership, which will be acted upon at the monthly meeting in May:

BENJAMIN F. BUTLER,
MANSFIELD LOVELL,
PETER MARIE,
LUKE T. MERRILL,

47 Exchange Place,
7 New-street,
27 William-street,
189 Broadway,

Nominated by
ROYAL PHELPS,
CALEB F. LINDSLEY,
ALEXANDER CAMPBELL,
PAUL SPOFFORD.

On motion, the Chamber adjourned.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES TARIFFS.

FROM THE FIRST ENACTED, 1789, TO THAT OF 1861 INCLUSIVE.

Among the chief difficulties which the country encountered in its colonial state was the absence of manufactures, and this want was in some degree allied to the financial difficulties of the several colonies since each had its particular system for raising revenue, and little harmony existed between them. There being no general industrial employment for a large class of people, the general wealth or ability to pay taxes was much less than it would have been had all labor found productive employment. The policy of the Imperial government had been to confine the industry of the colonists to the production of food and raw materials, and to the commerce which grew out of their transportation. The policy of prohibiting manufactures compelled the colonists to seek for their supplies of goods in the mother country, in exchange for their tobacco and the proceeds of fish and flour sold in the West Indies, the Catholic countries of Europe, and elsewhere. Notwithstanding the prohibition of the mother country the strong industrial turn of the people caused some manufactures to spring up, but the extent of that interest at the time of the formation of the federal government was subordinate to both the commercial and agricultural interests. Although the urgent want of manufactures was admitted by common consent, these commercial and agricultural interests did not regard with favor the evident necessity that existed for the heavily indebted federal government to raise its revenue from duties on imported goods. The country was exhausted by its long struggle, and what little capital was possessed by individuals was mostly embarked in commerce. These merchants were jealous of a system of finance which it was apprehended would weigh heavily upon their interests. It so happened that, at the time of the recognition of the United States as an independent nation, the governments of both France and England were disposed to facilitate national intercourse by proximate free trade regulations. In 1786 Mr. Pitt proposed a reciprocal trade between the United States and Great Britain, and in the same policy the governments of France and England negotiated a liberal commercial treaty, by which their reciprocal import duties were ten and twelve per centum ad valorem only, and in December, 1787, by decree, France extended the fullest free trade to the United States. Under these circumstances the thirteen colonies, which had suddenly become one nation by the removal of all internal restraints simultaneously with the opening of the freest external trade to their enterprise, grew with unexampled prosperity. The new lands of the west began, under enterprises stimulated by the active foreign demand for produce, to draw heavily upon the scanty supply of labor. The nascent manufactures were consequently compelled to struggle against want of capital, free importation, almost total absence of manufacturing experience, and scarcity of labor. The country was heavily in debt, and its resources very limited. The right to collect duties upon imports had been delegated by the States to the federal government for its support, and under that right the first tariff of 1789 was passed with the following preamble: "Whereas, it is necessary for the support of the government, for the discharge of the debts of the United States, and the encouragement and protection of manufactures, that duties be laid, etc."

The question here introduced in relation to encouraging manufactures took a definite shape in 1791, when Gen. Hamilton, in his celebrated report claimed power for the federal government to encourage learning, agriculture, manufactures, and commerce under the authority to levy imposts for the "general welfare." This doctrine was immediately opposed by Mr. Madison, Mr. Jefferson, and others, and the operation of the tariff, by a vote of forty-one to eight in favor of a resolution of Mr. Madison, was limited to seven years. The duties imposed by the act of 1789 were very moderate, ranging from five to seven and one-half per centum ad valorem. In 1790 an increase of duties was required to meet the public debts, and this was voted to be collected and paid until "the debts and purposes for which they were pledged shall be fully discharged." Twelve states voted on the adoption of the law. The eight votes of Massachusetts were given against it, also Connecticut two, New Hampshire one, New York one, Maryland two, South Carolina one, making fifteen to forty in favor. The increase in this case was small, and in March, 1792, Gen. Hamilton again asked for two and one-half per cent. more duties, "for the protection of the frontiers and other purposes," remarking

"The addition of two and one-half per cent. to the duty on the manufacture of articles now rated at five per cent., will constitute an important, though not an excessive augmentation, nevertheless it is proposed that it shall be only temporary, and there is reasonable ground for expectation, that the cause for having recourse to it, will not be of long continuance."

These moderate views in relation to the amount of tax may excite a smile in the present day, but they indicate the comparative poverty of the country at that time, when capital was limited, and currency far from abundant, and when that elasticity which credit and greater play of capital have imparted to commerce in our day did not exist. The duties asked for were granted by a vote of thirty-seven to twenty in the House. Of the twenty votes opposed to this law sixteen came from the South.

In 1794, the tariff was again revised in favor of more revenue. By it the duties on woven goods, and on iron were raised to fifteen per cent., and on glass to twenty per cent. Three years later, viz, March 3d, 1797, more revenue being required, a law was passed adding two and one-half per centum ad valorem to all duties. This law was passed by a vote of sixty-six to twenty-one. Kentucky and Tennessee having been admitted, voted in support of it. Of the twenty-one opposed votes, Pennsylvania gave seven, and Virginia five; Massachusetts three—ten in favor of it. In the course of the fifteen years that elapsed from the passage of the tariff of 1789 to the year 1804, the most astounding changes had taken place in the face of Europe. The French revolution had soon put an end to the liberal commercial policy of France and England, and the events of the subsequent wars had subjected the commerce of the United States to great inconvenience, although they had in some degree increased the demand for agricultural produce. In this country the invention of the cotton gin had given new life to southern industry, and a vast staple to shipping freights, nevertheless the piracies in the Mediterranean had attracted the attention of the government, and in March, 1804, further duties were required for the expenses of their repression. The proceeds of these duties were specially appropriated, to a fund to be called the "Mediterranean fund," to "protect the commerce and seamen of the United States against the Barbary Powers." By this law about two and

one-half per cent additional was laid upon the duties, and it was passed by a unanimous vote, every member present voting yea. Ohio, newly admitted, being included in the affirmative. On the following day, March 27, 1804, a law providing more duties on certain articles was passed, sixty-five to forty-one. From that period the commerce of the country encountered increasing difficulties from the growing animosity between the contending parties in Europe, and their efforts to enlist neutrals in their quarrels. The embargo law, and the non-intercourse laws were finally followed by war. The tariff underwent no further revision until July 1, 1812, when a law was passed doubling all the duties in force, and so to continue until the expiration of one year after the declaration of peace. This law passed the House by a vote of seventy-six to forty-eight. The forty-eight nays were given, twenty-two by New England, nine by New York, two from Pennsylvania, and the remainder from the South. These duties operating during a war when the large force of the enemy was employed in destroying commerce could not be supposed to be very productive, nevertheless, goods being very scarce and high, great profits were derived from the successful landing of cargoes, to the entry of which, these large profits tempted many colonial connivances. The government revenues from that source were, therefore, more than could reasonably have been expected. That tariff of 1812 may, however, be said to have closed the old commercial policy of the government. The return of peace inaugurated a new policy which ultimately produced important results, and which had a great influence upon the course of political events. The tariff of April 27, 1816 was the exponent of an entire new policy, growing out of newly created interests, and before entering upon that we may here illustrate the change from the old to the new policy by inserting the following table, on next page, which shows the duties levied by each general tariff since the formation of the government, upon nine leading heads of imports.

It will be observed that up to 1812 the duties on spirits, sugar, and coffee were specific, and on all others ad valorem. The highest of the latter being upon glass. The tariffs here given are the general tariffs, there were intermediate enactments changing the rates upon special articles. Hence, when in 1812 all the duties were doubled, the rates did not in all cases, as for example on glass, amount to double the rate of 1804. With the tariff of 1816, the specific system came more into use, as in the case of bar iron. There was also introduced, what was called the *minimum* principle, which was in effect a specific duty. Thus the duty upon cotton goods was twenty-five per cent., but all goods that cost less than twenty-five cents per yard were to be deemed to have cost twenty-five cents, on which the duty at twenty-five per cent. would amount to six and one-quarter cents, so that the *minimum* duty which could be paid on cottons was six and one-quarter cents per yard. This principle operating upon cottons was, by the tariff that passed May, 1828, made to operate also to a greater extent upon woollens, as follows:

Woollens costing not over	33½ cts. duty,	14 cts. per yd.	45	per cent. or	22.50	pr. yd. min'm
" " " over	50 " " and not over \$1.00,	45	"	"	45.00	" "
" " " " " " " " " " " "	\$1.00 " " " " " " " " " " " "	2.50,	45	"	1.12.50	" "
" " " " " " " " " " " "	2.50 " " " " " " " " " " " "	4.00,	45	"	1.50.00	" "

By this operation on cloth that cost forty-five cents per yard would pay fifty per cent; one costing twenty-two and one-half cents per yard

TABLE.

SHOWING THE DUTIES LEVIED BY EACH GENERAL TARIFF SINCE THE FORMATION OF THE GOVERNMENT, UPON
NINE LEADING HEADS OF IMPORTS.

	Distilled Spirits.	Glass.	China.	Sugar.	Coffee.	Pig Iron.	Manuf'd Iron.	Bar Iron.	Clothing.	Cottons.	Woolens.
July 4,.....1789..	gallon, 10 c. . . 10	per cent. . . 10	p. c. . . 10	1 c. lb. . . 2½	4 c. lb. . . 2½	5 p. c. . . 5	5 p. c. . . 5	5 p. c. . . 5	7½ p. ct. . . 7½	5 pr. ct. . . 5	5 pr. ct. . . 5
August 10,....1790..	" 15 " . . 12½	" . . 12½	" . . 12½	" . . 1½	" . . 4	" . . 5	" . . 7½	" . . 7½	" . . 7½	" . . 7½	" . . 7½
May 2,.....1793..	" 28 " . . 15	" . . 15	" . . 15	" . . 1½	" . . 4	" . . 10	" . . 10	" . . 10	" . . 10	" . . 10	" . . 10
June 7,.....1794..	" 28 " . . 20	" . . 20	" . . 15	" . . 1½	" . . 4	" . . 15	" . . 15	" . . 15	" . . 10	" . . 15	" . . 15
March 3,.....1797..	" 29 " . . 20	" . . 20	" . . 15	" . . 2½	" . . 5	" . . 15	" . . 15	" . . 15	" . . 10	" . . 17½	" . . 15
March 26,....1804..	" 29 " . . 22½	" . . 22½	" . . 17½	" . . 2½	" . . 5	" . . 17½	" . . 17½	" . . 17½	" . . 12½	" . . 20	" . . 17½
July 1, 1812, all duties doubled. }	" 60 " . . 40	" . . 40	" . . 30	" . . 5	" . . 10	p. ct. . . 30	" . . 30	" . . 30	" . . 25	" . . 40	" . . 30
April 27,.....1816..	" 42 " . . 20	" . . 20	" . . 20	" . . 3	" . . 5	c. lb. . . 20	" . . 20	" . . 30	p. t. . . 30	" . . 25	" . . 25
May 22,.....1824..	" 42 " . . 30 & 3 c. lb.	" . . 30	" . . 20	" . . 3	" . . 5	" . . \$10	p. t. . . 25	" . . 30	" . . 30	" . . 25	" . . 20
May 19,.....1828..	" 57 " . . 30 " 3	" . . 30	" . . 20	" . . 3	" . . 5	" . . \$12½	" . . 25	" . . 36	" . . 50	" . . 25	" . . 45
July 14,.....1832..	" 57 " . . 30 " 3	" . . 30	" . . 20	" . . 2½	" . . Free.	" . . \$10	" . . 25	" . . 30	" . . 50	" . . 25	" . . 50
March 2,.....1833*											
September 11, 1841..	pr cent. 20	" . . 20	per cent. . . 20	" . . 20	p. ct. . . "	" . . 20	p. c. . . 20	" . . 20	p. c. . . 20	" . . 20	" . . 20
August 30,....1842..	gallon, 60 "	" . . 30 & 6 c. lb.	" . . 30	" . . 2½	c. lb. . . "	" . . \$9	p. t. . . 30	" . . 25	p. t. . . 50	" . . 30	" . . 40
August 6,....1846..	pr. ct. 100	" . . 40	per cent. . . 30	" . . 30	p. ct. . . "	" . . 30	p. c. . . 30	" . . 30	p. c. . . 30	" . . 25	" . . 30
March 3,.....1857..	" 30	" . . 30	" . . 24	" . . 24	" . . "	" . . 24	" . . 24	" . . 24	" . . 24	" . . 19	" . . 24
March 2,.....1861..	gallon, 40 "	" . . 30	" . . 30	" . . 4 c. lb.	" . . "	" . . \$6	p. t. . . 30	" . . 15	p. t. . . 30	" . . 30	" . . 25 12 c. lb.

* Where the duty exceeds 20 per cent., the excess to be reduced biennially until it should cease, 1849.

would pay one hundred per cent; and one costing two dollars and sixty cents per yard would pay seventy per cent. The average would be about eighty per cent, instead of forty-five as given in the table. This system was preserved in the general tariff that passed in 1828. These advancing rates on a specific basis were so much the more onerous upon imports that the progress of inventions and discoveries in machines and science, aided by the sharp competition, that a return of general peace between the countries of Europe, developed, were rapidly reducing the cost of goods, while the qualities were improving. At the time that policy was inaugurated in 1816 a new state of affairs was being developed in respect of the national industry. While the general interests of the country up to the war had been commercial and agricultural, a certain progress had been made in manufactures. Toward the close of the last century spinning of yarns had been introduced from England, and this industry, under the force of new inventions, which had not only extended the supply and cheapened the price of raw materials, but also greatly reduced the cost of manufacturing by supplanting hand labor with marvellous machines, had become greatly extended. The weaving of cloth by machines had not, however, been undertaken, nor had the, in England, newly invented power looms been introduced. Glass, iron and earthenware were represented as flourishing to some extent, but when the war, following the embargo and non-intercourse, that had thrown the capital of the Middle and New England States out of commerce, took place, it found the country in great straits for want of the usually imported manufactures. The ships being laid up, capital sought a new direction, and manufactures offered the field for employment. It was then that Mr. Lowell returned from Europe with a knowledge of all the recently invented spinning and weaving machines. He, in connection with Patrick T. Jackson, Esq., of Boston, started those machine factories that have since grown into the city of Lowell, with its magnificent position in respect to the national industry. These and similar enterprises undertaken during the war formed an interest that thrust itself upon the notice of the government. The war had also developed the financial weakness of the federal government. By paralyzing the commercial interest it had given a rude shock to the union, and the tendency seemed to be to decentralize power, or to destroy the equilibrium, by a so to speak, centrifugal force. Almost the sole means on which the government had to depend was borrowing. In the four years ending with 1815 the whole revenues had been one hundred and forty-eight million six hundred and eighty-four thousand dollars. Of this amount ninety-seven million six hundred and forty-four thousand dollars had been borrowed, and four million had been obtained by taxation. The public debt, therefore, which had been forty-five million one hundred and twenty thousand three hundred and four dollars up to 1st. January, 1812, had risen to one hundred and twenty-seven million three hundred and thirty-four thousand nine hundred and thirty-four dollars, January 1816. The credit of the government was at a low point, and the continuance of the war would have presented accumulating difficulties. There was then an eminent necessity for strengthening the hands of the government not by direct taxes, which could with difficulty be enforced, but by higher indirect taxes. This view was taken by John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, then a member of the House, and he favored the higher tariff of 1816, which met the views of the grow-

ing manufacturing interests. Acting in concert with Mr. Lowell, of Massachusetts, he proposed in the House the *minimum* system that had been devised by Mr. Lowell, and which was adopted.

The debates on the new tariff which became necessary on the return of peace were the first signs of the crystallization of party views upon the question of protection for protection's sake. Up to that time the protection extended to manufactures was confessedly incidental. The duties had been laid in the view to revenue, and adjusted so as to give the largest amount while aiding manufactures, without interfering with trade. As we have said, the embargo, non-intercourse and war combined to send an enormous amount of capital from the employment of commerce to those manufactures. In the discussion on the tariff, March 22, 1816, Mr. Ingham, of Pennsylvania, said that within eight years previous to that time one hundred million of dollars had in the country been invested in manufactures. This interest was now exposed, not only to the goods that had during the war accumulated abroad, and which came to the United States for a market at all hazards, but to the fact that those goods were the production of the new inventions and discoveries that had in England cheapened cost and improved qualities. Against this triple combination of quantity, cheapened cost, and improved qualities the manufacturers of the country were called upon to contend, and they required that their claims to government aid should be recognized. These claims were contested by the shipping interests, which had also suffered by the war. Mr. Pickens, of Massachusetts, contended that twenty-five per cent. for two years was abundance of protection for manufacturers. Daniel Webster, then representing New Hampshire, proposed that thirty per cent. should be a maximum duty, to be gradually reduced after two years. The great commercial and national interests of the country he contended depended upon free trade. The defences of the country depended upon the navy, which in its turn is born of commerce. That far more employment was given by a certain amount of capital employed in shipping than in the same amount employed in manufacturing. Mr. Smith, of South Carolina, proposed a reduction of the sugar duties claimed for Louisiana, and Mr. Wright, of Pennsylvania, proposed to exclude from voting all members concerned in manufactures. Mr. Randolph was in favor of encouraging individual or family manufacture, but not corporate. Mr. Calhoun, of South Carolina, stated that although his section had no direct interest in manufactures, yet upon national grounds he admitted the claims of the manufacturers. The war had demonstrated the weakness of a country which depended altogether upon foreigners for its supplies, produce, and raw materials in exchange for goods. When hostilities rendered intercourse impossible, the produce could not be sold, and people suffered by being deprived of goods, while the government, distressed in its finances, could get little aid from people whose produce was unsalable. Such an extent of manufactures as would employ a large part of the population in working up materials and food into merchandise that would employ a coasting trade in the interchange was indispensable to the national welfare, and the unity of the States. The course of events in Europe had forced upon the federal government a line of policy, of which embargo and war were the necessary measures. That line of national policy had called into being a large amount of forced manufactures that were necessary to the country. Those manu-

factures had not sprung up in the ordinary course of national industry, but had suddenly resulted from the same national policy that had largely increased the public debt. Peace had come, as a matter of course, bringing with it the necessity of paying the debt, and the danger of ruin to those manufactures which had been called into being by the war. The duty of the government was in levying duties to pay its debts, also to protect those investments of manufactures, which had originated in the same necessity as the debts. The manufactures would be firmly established under the shield of the duty necessary for the discharge of debt, and by the time the debt was paid the protection would be no longer needed. While they were to be protected from the effects of peace, it was also the policy of the government to attract hither those crowds of skilled workmen which the wars of Europe had set afloat. Like the edict of Nantes, the convulsions of Europe had driven forth its industry, of which it would be the part of wisdom to profit. These views prevailed, and the tariff was adopted by a vote of eighty-eight to fifty-four.

It is obvious that the tariff, thus raised in rates, operating upon the flood of goods, which, attracted by the war prices, poured into the country at the return of peace, could not but fill the public treasury. The highest amount ever previously received had been sixteen million three hundred and sixty-three thousand five hundred and fifty dollars in 1808, just before the operation of the embargo. The amount collected in 1816 was thirty-six million three hundred and six thousand eight hundred and seventy-four dollars. This figure, indicative of an enormous importation, was also the precursor of a revulsion in trade, as the consequence of pouring such immense quantities of goods into a country impoverished by war. The amount of imports was one hundred and forty-seven million one hundred and three thousand dollars, consequently the average duty was over twenty-four per cent. against eleven and one-half per cent. in 1808. The large importations were met to some extent by the increased export of domestic produce, which had also accumulated during the war, and which in 1816 reached sixty-four million, exceeding by twenty million, or nearly fifty per cent., the exports of any former year. The excess of imports was still, however, very large, but the incorporation of the new United States Bank, which went into operation April 7, 1817, did much toward sustaining the markets, nevertheless, the pressure, as well upon importers as manufacturers, was very severe.

The new tariff did not have the anticipated effect in aiding manufactures; on the other hand by tempting larger investments in the hope of anticipated profits, it increased the competition, while it dilated the circle of the manufacturing interests. The capital of New England went more decidedly into that branch of industry, so much so, that the voice of New England began now to be decidedly on the side of protection. There is no doubt but that competition had much to do with the continued alleged distress of the manufacturers, but it was also the case that increase of machinery abroad under the new inventions that were rapidly produced, ever cheapening cost, and improving qualities, bore heavily upon the manufacturers here, who did not keep up with those advantages, and they declared those duties, which, in 1816, had by Webster and Pickens been considered abundant, if continued for two years, inadequate. The country was also undergoing re-action from war prices, caused by a return of the banks to specie payments under the action of the new United States

Bank. The inflated currency of the suspended banks during the war, and up to 1818, had been the medium of contracts at high nominal prices, which it had become very onerous to discharge in a specie currency, and this was a fruitful source of that distress, which Mr. Clay so eloquently depicted in the House, March 31, 1824, when he projected his American system. "The general distress," said he, "is indicated by the diminished exports of our national produce; by the alarming diminution of the circulating medium; by the numerous bankruptcies extending to all orders of society; a universal complaint of want of employment, and a reduction of the wages of labor; by the ravenous pursuit after public situations, not for the sake of their honors, but as a means of private subsistence," etc., etc. The remedy according to Mr. Clay, was in the higher duties proposed by the tariff bill of 1824.

"The object of the bill under consideration is to create this home market, and to lay the foundation of a '*genuine American policy*,' and it is incumbent upon the partisans of the '*foreign policy*' to demonstrate that the foreign market is an adequate vent for the surplus produce of our labor."

This was the elaboration of the argument of Mr. Calhoun in 1816, but the South was now satisfied with the existing protection. The government finances were recovering, the debt was being rapidly diminished, and that section no longer regarded with favor a system that they alleged built up an exclusively northern interest. Mr. Clay remarked that if the North and West were unassociated with the South, they would prohibit every foreign fabric; "but," said he, "they are fortunately connected with the South, which believes its interest to require a free admission of foreign manufactures."

The brilliant argument of Mr. Clay found its leading opponent in Mr. Webster. He denounced the term "American policy." "Since the speaker," said he, "denominated the policy he recommends a *new policy in the country*, one is a little curious to know why this imitation of other nations is denominated an '*American policy*,' while on the contrary, a preference for our own established system is called a '*foreign policy*.' Sir, that is the truest American policy which shall most usefully employ American capital and American labor, and best sustain the whole population. He seems to me to argue the question as if all domestic industry were confined to the production of manufactured articles, as if the employment of our own capital and our own labor, in the occupation of commerce and navigation were not as emphatically domestic industry as any other occupation. One man makes a yard of cloth at home; another raises agricultural products and buys a yard of imported cloth. Both these are equally the earnings of American industry. There is no foundation for the distinction which attributes to certain employments the peculiar appellation of '*American industry*.' We hear of the fatal policy of 1816, and yet the law of 1816 was passed avowedly for the benefit of manufactures, and with very few exceptions, imposed upon articles imported very great additions of tax; in some important instances, indeed, amounting to prohibition. Let us now suppose that we are beginning the protection of manufactures by duties on imports. What we are asked to do is to render those duties higher. The government has already done much for protection, and it ought to be presumed to have done enough." These leading arguments by Clay and Webster respectively, were followed by debates on cotton,

woollen, iron, glass, and other articles, all of which claimed protection. Mr. Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, replied to Mr. Webster, charging that the shipping had been protected by the government more than any other interest. Mr. Foote, of Connecticut, made a long argument in opposition to the so-called "American policy." Mr. Clarke, of New York, showed that iron making was then very profitable; and Mr. Todd, of Pennsylvania, replied, contending that iron could not be made without protection. Mr. Hamilton, of South Carolina, said, "We are told, Mr. Speaker, that our manufacturing establishments will, in a very short period, supply the place of the foreign demand. The modesty of this hope may be measured by one or two facts: our factories now take eighty thousand bales, or less than one sixth of the crop, which in 1824 was six hundred thousand bales. Now, how long will it take to increase those manufactures to a scale equal to the consumption of this production can not be determined, but it will be some years after the epitaph will have been written on the fortunes of the South." It may be here called to mind that the crop of 1860 was four million six hundred thousand bales, and the consumption in the United States nine hundred thousand bales, or one-fifth the whole product.

The tariff, thus long and earnestly debated, became a law, and continued in operation four years. If we compare it with four years of the tariff of 1816, we shall find the results, as far as the rates of taxation went, to have been as follows:

	TOTAL DUTIABLE IMPORTS.	DUTIES.	AVERAGE PER CENT.
Tariff of 1816, (four years,) to 1824.....	\$264,962,457.....	\$ 90,430,612.....	35 per cent.
" 1824, " 1828.....	301,558,885.....	121,637,942.....	40½ "

The average duty for the whole period was thus raised five and one-quarter per cent. on the whole amount of dutiable imports, of which the amount imported increased fourteen per cent. In this period of four years the amount of goods imported free of duty was not large, and did not much vary annually in amount. The larger amount of imports that took place under the tariff of 1824, are an index of the great speculative activity that had sprung up all over the world, following the enactment of what was known as Peel's bill, of 1819, which restored specie payments to the Bank of England. The negotiation of foreign loans in London was very active up to 1825, and the capital of England, emanating from London, flowed freely over the commercial world, until the movement ended in the explosion of 1825. In the same period in the United States the new United States Bank had got successfully into operation. The financial machinery of commerce had been restored to working order. The government paid off annually some six million of the public debt, the amount of which had been reduced from one hundred and twenty-seven million in 1816 to ninety million in 1823, and to sixty-seven million four hundred and seventy-five thousand dollars in 1828. This operation had tended to make capital plenty, and the protective system attracted it into manufactures to a considerable extent. The amount employed in woollen manufactures rose from ten millions at the peace, to fifty million in 1827, when the depression, resulting from the revulsion of 1825, involving the failure of the American banker in London, Samuel Williams, was upon the market. The English goods were manufactured under growing improvements in the means of cheapening cost, and the American manufactures encountered them in their market at a

moment when that market, suffering under the effects of the financial revulsion, was surcharged with their own productions; they, therefore, insisted upon a revision of the tariff in their favor, and, January, 1827, Mr. Mallary, of Vermont, presented petitions from woollen manufacturers, praying for relief. He represented the large investments in woollens in New England, the importance they were to the country, and the necessity of sustaining them by the proposed bill, which raised the rates, and applied the minimum principle to them, and without which these interests would be destroyed.

Mr. Cambreleng, representative of New York city, spoke in opposition. He denounced the bill as an attempted imposition upon the House. "That while the bill purported to charge thirty-three and one-third per cent. duty, it really levied two hundred per cent., and that its object was, and its effect would be, entirely to prohibit the import of woollen goods consumed by the poor, while it taxed highly those used by the rich; that the woollen manufacturers were suffering only from their own over speculations." Mr. Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, also opposed the bill "as prohibitive in its nature, and was in no shape one for revenue. He had voted for the protection upon woollens in 1824, but that was no reason why he should favor the prohibition now proposed." Mr. Stevenson, of Pennsylvania, denounced it as a tax upon the poor. Mr. Mitchell, of South Carolina, opposed the bill as oppressive upon the people. "The bills," he said, "of 1789, 1816, and 1824 taxed those who consumed the goods in the proportion in which they consumed them, and that was right and just. The present bill taxes the poor, and exempts the rich." On the other side it was argued by Tristram Burges, of Rhode Island, that "the proposed bill was not to impose higher taxes, but to give the protection that had been sought by that of 1824, but which had been evaded by fraudulent entries." Mr. Cambreleng remarked, that "the bill contained nothing to prevent evasions that had not been in that of 1824, it contained simply higher duties, disguised as low ones." John Davis, of Massachusetts, stated that "under the law of 1824 extensive frauds had been practised, by which the value of one hundred million of property suffered, and it was now sought only to prevent those evasions." H. W. Dwight, of Massachusetts, supported the same view, and claimed that "the bill was to relieve sixty million dollars of property, and seventy thousand people." The bill passed the House, but failed to become a law.

The excitement throughout the country was greatly increased under the efforts of the manufacturing interests, to bring a pressure to bear upon Congress. A convention of the friends of protection was called to meet at Harrisburg, July 30, 1827. It was attended by delegates from the New England and Middle States. The question of protection, in general, was earnestly discussed, and a memorial was drawn up addressed to Congress, accompanied by a draft bill proposing a large augmentation of duties. This action of manufacturers, as a body, added to the excitement of the times, on the approach of the Presidential election, particularly in the planting States, upon the subject of those duties. The protective policy had become the issue on which great parties were divided. The great discussions on the subject took place in 1816, 1820, 1824, and in 1828, each time at the last long session that preceded the Presidential election. Like every subject, which is long publicly dis-

cussed, it had come to excite men's minds, and sections began to demand those positive advantages which they derived from protection as a right, while others resisted the policy as an oppression. The members from the planting States showed continually increasing bitterness, while the favored interests continually demanded more efficient protection.

The excitement caused prudent men, who had favored the protective policy as one that encouraged spinning, weaving, and knitting at home, or fire-side industry, to change their views. The protection seemed more to favor corporate capital, and to operate unequally. The planting States became more determined to resist a policy which they regarded as benefiting the North at their expense, and the North and East became more urgent in demanding a continuance of a system which they alleged had tempted their capital into investments, that would be ruined if the government changed that policy. This ground was taken by Daniel Webster, who, in his speech of 1826, declared for the highest protection, as opposed to the free trade policy that he had formerly advocated. He remarked, "He who is not wise enough to be always right, should be wise enough to change his opinion when he finds that he is wrong." He also stated that when the capital of New England was invested in commerce the interest of that section was free trade, but when the government, by its policy, had driven it from ships into factories, those interests demanded protection under the circumstances thus forced upon them. In this position of affairs the session of 1827-28 came on amid the greatest excitement.

The famous tariff of 1828, in which the protective policy culminated, was drawn up by Silas Wright, of New York, and he defended its protective features on the ground that "it was intended to turn the manufacturing capital of the country to the working up of domestic raw material, and not foreign raw materials. Home grown wool, and not imported wool." Mr. Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, opposed the bill as "prohibitive." "The policy of protection was admitted to be the settled policy of the country, but that was not prohibition. The system of minimum is prohibitive and deceptive; the legislature of Pennsylvania had not sanctioned the propositions of the Harrisburg convention, it had declared in favor of such a tariff as 'would enable our manufactures to enter into fair competition with foreign manufactures.'" In the course of the debate, the sectional tendency of the policy was more and more developed. The legislature of South Carolina strongly remonstrated against the bill, which finally passed on motion of Silas Wright, one hundred and five to seventy-four. Mr. Wilde then moved to amend the title by adding the words, "and for the encouragement of domestic manufactures." Mr. Randolph opposed; he said that "domestic manufactures were those carried on in the families of farmers; that this bill was to rob and plunder one half of the Union for the benefit of the residue." Mr. Drayton moved to amend the title by adding the words, "to increase the profits of certain manufactures." These proposed amendments show the temper which the discussion had evolved.

The passage of the bill increased the heat, and on the 10th of February, 1829, South Carolina, through its senators, Smith and Hayne, entered a protest against the tariff of 1828, as "in violation of State rights, and a usurpation by Congress of powers not granted to it by the constitution; that the power to encourage domestic industry is inconsistent with the idea of any other than a consolidated government; that the power to protect

manufactures is nowhere granted to Congress, but on the other hand, is reserved to the States; that, if it had the power, yet a tariff grossly unequal and oppressive, is such an abuse of that power as is incompatible with a free government; that the interests of South Carolina are agricultural, and to cut off her foreign market, and confine her products to an inadequate home market, is to reduce her to poverty. For these and other reasons the State protests against the tariff as unconstitutional, oppressive, and unjust." The protest was supported by an address from each of the South Carolina senators. Mr. Smith remarked, that "yearly, since the war duties had been demanded and granted, those duties had drawn in greater numbers of manufacturers, who still demanded higher duties, and always obtained them; this system South Carolina had opposed, and now formally protests against it." Mr. Hayne said, "the South, in view of the policy of the government, might almost be considered as a stranger in a strange land. The fruits of their industry, had, from the policy of the federal government, for many years past been flowing to the North in a current as steady and undiverted as the waters of the great gulf, and as the sources of our prosperity were drying up, that reciprocal intercourse which had softened asperities, and bound the different parts of the country together in bonds of common sympathy and affection, had in a great measure subsided, yet the North seems to treat these protests as 'got up for party purposes.'" The protest of South Carolina was ordered to be printed. The ferment in the Southern States, however, took larger proportions. Upon the assembling of the various State legislatures committees were appointed in several States to inquire into the constitutional powers of Congress. North Carolina protested against the law. The State of Alabama denied the power of Congress to lay duties for protection. The legislature of Georgia protested against the tariff, declaring that the true construction of the constitution denied Congress the power to levy duties for protection, and that "it would submit to no other construction."

A convention, held in South Carolina, passed an ordinance, November 17, 1832, declaring the revenue laws of the United States null and void, and enjoined the legislature to carry the decree into effect. The legislature met, and passed the law promptly. The State authorities were now arrayed in opposition to the federal authorities. The militia was armed and organized. There were great fears that a collision would unite all the Southern States in opposition to the North. The federal government organized a force in Charleston, and General Scott was placed in command with two vessels of war. The State collected twelve thousand men, and war was impending when Congress met. The annual message earnestly advised a revision of the tariff, and a reduction of the obnoxious duties to the revenue standard. The debt was about to be extinguished, and less revenues were wanted. After the assembling of Congress the President issued his proclamation to the people of South Carolina, calling upon them to obey the laws. South Carolina replied by counter proclamation from Gov. Hayne. In this state of affairs Mr. Calhoun resigned the Vice Presidency, and was elected to the Senate in order to defend the Southern position. The annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury advised a reduction of duties. Congress immediately took up the tariff, and a bill making great reductions in rates of duties was reported. While the discussion progressed the President communicated to Congress the South Carolina nullifying laws. The

message stated that the Collector had been ordered to remove to Castle Pinckney, but that new powers were required. On January 21, 1833, the bill to enforce the payment of the revenue was reported, and the matter came fully before Congress. The legislatures of the several States being in session, passed resolutions in relation to the tariff. Alabama, Georgia, and North Carolina condemned the tariff as unconstitutional. Georgia proposed a convention of Virginia, North and South Carolina, Alabama, Tennessee, and Mississippi to devise measures of relief. Virginia passed resolutions that "the people of Virginia expect" that neither the federal government nor the State of South Carolina will disturb the public peace. New Hampshire passed resolutions in favor of reducing the tariff to the revenue standard. While these things were passing, Mr. Clay, February 12, introduced a bill for the permanent adjustment of the tariff. It set forth that "duties shall be laid for the purpose of raising such revenue as may be necessary to an economical administration of government." The position was taken that the revenue required a duty of twenty per cent., and that wherever existing duties exceeded that amount, one-tenth of that excess should be taken off September 30, 1835, and one-tenth each alternate year thereafter, until 1841, when one-half the remaining excess should be taken off, and the resulting half September 30, 1842, after which all duties were to be twenty per cent., and to be paid in cash. A large number of articles before taxed were by this bill placed on the free list and it provided for the home valuation of the twenty per cent. duty after 1842. This bill, which was considered as acceding to the demands of South Carolina, became a law. Gov. Hamilton, of South Carolina, accordingly, called the convention together, and communicated to it the modification of the tariff, whereupon an ordinance was passed repealing the nullification law, and the controversy ceased.

The operation of the compromise thus established went on by biennial reductions until 1841. During those years, however, great changes overtook the commercial world, and the finances of the government were powerfully affected by them. One effect of the passage of the tariff of 1828 had been to diminish the import of goods, and to induce, as a consequence, a larger importation of specie. This circumstance gave greater strength to the banking movement, at a time when the harvests of Europe being abundant, money was then cheap, and credits liberal. These circumstances initiated a season of speculation, which was fostered by the war that had sprung up between the government and the United States bank.

The government on removing the deposits, placed them with State banks, with the reiterated injunction to "loan liberally to merchants." The numberless circumstances that combined to bring about the revulsion of 1837, and the suspension of the banks, by cutting short the importation of goods, ruined the government revenue, and reduced it to the issue of Treasury notes to meet current expenses. The large imports of the year ending with 1836, had, on the extinguishment of the public debt, caused a large surplus revenue to accumulate, which had to the extent of twenty-eight million been divided among the States. The revulsion now compelled a return to the tariff for means of revenue. The compromise bill had, however, guaranteed that after 1842 twenty per cent. should be a maximum duty, except in case of war. It was not thought advisable to violate that compromise, but the twenty per

cent. tax was laid upon a large portion of the articles that had been made free by the compromise act. This did not meet the requirement, since in that year the value of free articles imported fell from sixty-six to thirty millions, while those dutiable increased less than eight millions. This did not, however, prevent Congress from passing a law to distribute the proceeds of the public land sales, pro rata among the several States. The law was to become inoperative if the compromise limit of twenty per cent. duties should be infringed. The tariff, therefore, became a question again in the following year. The wants of the government were made the basis of a new movement similar to that of the Harrisburg convention, and a "home league" was formed October 15, 1841, with the object of restoring the high rates. The proceedings of the home league were endorsed by Mr. Clay and the other friends of the "American policy." The President, in his annual message, December, 1841, called attention to the necessary revision of the tariff, advising a moderate increase, and a change of the home valuation principle. The debate upon this passage of the message again opened up the whole question of protection. The financial distress of the federal government made more revenue urgent, and the distress of the manufacturers was urged as a reason why those duties should be high. While urging high duties, however, to supply the government revenues, it was proposed to repeal that section of the land distribution act, which, by its operation, brought the land revenues back into the federal Treasury upon the violation of the compromise act.

In the Senate Messrs. Calhoun, Bagby, Benton, and Woodbury contended with Messrs. Clay, Evans and others, and in the House the debate was very general. Mr. Clay declared the government wants to be the paramount necessity, and appealed to the patriotism of all parties to supply them. Mr. Calhoun objected to the proposed tariff, that it was worse than that of 1828. The average rate was, indeed, ten per cent. less, but the substitution of cash duties for bonds or long credit, the substitution of specific for ad valorem rates on articles that had fallen in value, the home valuation of goods, the arbitrary mode of collecting, and the fact that it went into operation immediately on its passage, all tended to enhance its injurious features. He said, "I shall not dwell on the fact that it openly violates the compromise act, and the pledges given by its author and by Gov. Davis, of Massachusetts, that if the South would adhere to the compromise while it was operating favorably for the manufacturers, they would stand by it when it came to operate favorably for the South. I dwell not on those double breaches of plighted faith, although they are of a serious character, and likely to exercise a very pernicious influence over our future legislation, by preventing amicable adjustments of questions that may hereafter threaten the peace of the country." The bill was passed with a clause repealing the clause of the land law which suspended the distribution of the public lands, making the distribution unconditional. For this it was vetoed, August, 1842, by John Tyler.

The debates were full, but with comparatively little excitement, and since the want of revenue was so apparent the bill became a law without the obnoxious clause. Messrs. Buchanan and Wright voting in favor of it for revenue reasons, but under protest. The law went immediately into operation. Among the changes that it introduced were the payment of duties in cash on the home valuation, by which the collector of the port where any

description of goods should be imported, was to cause to be ascertained the actual value of the article in the principal markets of the country where it was exported, and at the time of the export. To this value should be added costs and charges, including commissions, and the aggregate to be the value on which the duties are charged; all goods of wool imported in an unfinished state shall be valued as if entirely finished at the place of export. The appraisers, collectors, and naval officers were to have power to examine parties under oath in relation to values. These were some of the provisions that were considered very onerous. The tariff went into operation at a time of great general depression in the commercial world, and consequently, in a revenue point of view, it was not so successful as had been hoped. It did not, however, fail to revive the tariff issue at the general elections. The breach of the compromise was charged, but the passage was denied as a party measure. The average charge upon dutiable goods under it was thirty-three per cent., and it yielded an annual average of twenty-six million dollars.

The change of administration was in 1846 followed by the Mexican war, and views in respect of the tariff policy were again changed. The new administration proposed three important measures in relation to the duties; the first to abandon the protective theory in favor of a revenue theory, that is, to reduce the rates of duty, to levy them *ad valorem* only, to make the rates uniform, and to make them payable in cash; the warehouse system to facilitate the carrying trade; and the independent treasury, by which the cash duties were to be collected in gold and silver only.

The message of the President, December, 1841, remarked upon the importance of revenue rather than protection, and advised a reduction of existing rates as necessary to an increase of revenue. The Secretary of the Treasury made an elaborate report of the same tenor, recommending a revenue tariff, in opposition to a protective tariff, or the adjustment of the imports to such a point as would collect the largest revenue without checking the importation, or in other words, the course of trade. Such a bill was introduced from the committee of Ways and Means, by Mr. McKay, April 14, 1846. It made eight schedules, in one of which all liquors were charged seventy-five per cent. *ad valorem*, and all other goods under their respective schedules thirty per cent., twenty-five per cent., twenty per cent., fifteen per cent., ten per cent., five per cent. *ad valorem*, and the remainder free.

It was estimated that these duties would give an average of twenty-four per cent. on the dutiable imports, and greatly increase the sum of the duties by admitting of a larger trade. This bill was accompanied by the "warehouseing act," which provided for the payment of duties in cash, and that goods may be deposited in the public stores, subject to the order of the owner for one year upon the payment of duties; that goods in bond may be transported to any other port of entry and other provisions, tending to facilitate the operations of commerce. These bills again opened up the tariff discussion. But the former discussions had exhausted argument *pro* and *con*, and there could be little more said on the subject. Mr. Collamer defended the protective principle because "it was necessary to national independence," and the tariff of 1842, "because it gave revenue enough," and he denounced the abandonment as intended in this bill, of protection as a principle of national government. Mr. Rathbon opposed the new bill as "not likely to give sufficient rev-

enne." The debate was very general, but the tariff passed the House July 3, by a vote of one hundred and fourteen to ninety-five, to go into operation December 1, 1846. The operation of the tariff was extremely simple, all articles not free being charged with ad valorem duties. The warehouse system was organized, as also the Independent Treasury system, and the course of trade soon adapted itself to the new regulation of specie payments.

The tariff operated ten years and seven months, viz., from the 1st of December, 1846, to the 1st of July, 1857, and in accordance with the estimates it averaged twenty-four and one-half per cent. on the dutiable imports. The average duties under the tariff of 1842 had been twenty-six million dollars per annum. The average of the tariff of 1846 was forty-six million dollars per annum during its operation. It is to be borne in mind, however, that the effect of the gold discoveries by imparting great activity to trade in general, promoted larger aggregate exports from the country, which, since it had become a gold exporting country, could receive its pay only in those goods which were charged with duty. The same influence had also caused a rise in the value of commodities, and of course, a larger yield to ad valorem duties operating upon those higher values.

The same causes, which had imparted such activity to the import trade, had given animation to manufactures of all descriptions, and while the government treasury was overflowing with revenue, the general prosperity was apparently sound. The large revenue yielded by the tariff was in excess of the expenditures, and a considerable accumulation of gold took place in the Treasury vaults.

This was not quite in accordance with the sub-treasury law, which contemplated an amount of revenue no greater than the expenditure, so that the gold should pass through the treasury without stopping, thus keeping the specie currency active. The accumulation was felt to be an inconvenience, and the government sought to reduce it by the purchase of the outstanding stock at high premiums, but a permanent remedy was proposed in a reduction of the rates of duty upon all imported goods.

President Pierce, in his message of December, 1856, called attention to the annual report of Mr. Guthrie, Secretary of Treasury, in relation to the necessity of reducing the duties. The report set forth the large revenues in excess of the wants of the government, and argued that as all duties are a tax upon the people, they should be reduced when no longer required for the public service. It advised the placing of all materials that enter into manufactures, such as are free in Great Britain, upon the free list, and also salt as a necessity for Western provision packers.

A tariff bill was in accordance with these recommendations reported in the House January 14, and engaged discussion. Mr. Durfee, of Rhode Island, advocated free materials, but wished to discriminate in favor of American manufactures. There was but little general interest manifested in the country in respect to the proposed changes. The manufacturers of the East seemed more disposed to favor the free introduction of raw materials than to increase the tax upon the imported goods. The merchants of New York petitioned for a removal of the duties on sugar. The debate in the House went off until January, when it became more general upon the bill reported by the Committee of Ways and Means. Mr. Stanton, of Ohio, said it was very evident that the revenue must be reduced, but that the bill offered was a manufacturers' bill, intended to favor the wool manufacturers of the East at the expense of the wool

growers of the West. Mr. Washburn, of Illinois, wanted lead protected. Mr. DeWitt, of Massachusetts, favored the reduction of revenue by freeing raw materials. In the Senate Mr. Adams, of Mississippi, proposed making rail road iron free. In the House Messrs. Smith and Garnett, of Virginia, favored free trade. Mr. Letcher proposed a reduction of twenty per cent. on the tariff of 1846. Mr. Campbell, of Ohio, offered a substitute for the bill of which the general features were nearly the same as those of the committee of Ways and Means. This finally passed, one hundred and ten to eighty-four. Mr. Stanton, of Ohio, denounced it as passed by "fraudulent combination of those who favored the protection hemp, of sugar, iron, and the woollen manufactures of Massachusetts. It was a blow at the wool grower."

In the Senate Mr. Hunter substituted a new bill with large reductions. This was opposed by Mr. Brodhead, of Pennsylvania, who favored the House bills. Mr. Wilson, of Massachusetts, opposed it, because he said the object was to reduce the revenue, and these reductions would increase it by tempting importation. Mr. Collamer, of Vermont, took the same view of it. Mr. Pugh, of Ohio, opposed both, he said, "the wool manufacturers seek to ruin the wool growers." Mr. Toombs favored larger reductions. Mr. Butler, of South Carolina, wanted the tariff abolished altogether. Mr. Toucey, of Connecticut, wanted the revenue diminished by adding largely to the free list. Mr. Hunter's bill finally passed, with an amendment by Mr. Douglas, that wool under twenty cents, foreign valuation, should be free. A committee of conference finally reported Mr. Hunter's bill with the free list of Mr. Campbell's. This passed the House one hundred and twenty-four to seventy-one, March 3d, to go into operation July 1st, 1857.

The effect of the tariff was to check importation in the spring, and to cause a great accumulation of merchandise in bond, to be released after July 1st. The important reduction from one hundred per cent to thirty per cent. on spirits, caused a large quantity to arrive, and the failure of the Louisiana sugar crop in that year, added very greatly to the effect of the reduction of the duty upon sugar, from thirty to twenty-four per cent. The elements of revulsion began to manifest themselves with the operations of the tariff, in the first months of which the goods in warehouse were put upon the market. The money pressure that followed came in aid of the designs of the projector of the tariff, in reducing the revenue, which fell from sixty-three millions eight hundred and seventy-five thousand nine hundred and five in the last year of the tariff of 1846, to forty-one millions seven hundred and eighty-nine thousand six hundred and twenty-one dollars, in 1858. This diminution of the customs added to that of the land sales under the reaction of speculation, carried the revenue far below the amount required for the wants of the government. This result once more brought with it the necessity for a revision of the tariff in order to restore the revenue. The circumstances that attended the session of 1860-61, were such as enabled the passage of the bill reported by the Committee of Ways and Means with little debate or investigation. The act has restored the highest protective character to the tariff, replacing the ad valorem with complicated specific duties, and the bill went into operation at such short notice as caused it to operate upon goods ordered under the old tariff. There are generally-existing circumstances that attend the operation of the tariff that may interfere with the revenue from it.

THE TARIFFS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statement showing the Revenue collected each year from 1789 to 1890, the amount of Dutiable Imports and Free Goods imported annually, and the average rate of duty on Imports, annually.

From 4th Mar. 1789 to 31st Dec.,	Tariffs.	Customs.	Total Imports.	Duties per cent.
1790.. Aug. 10.... General.....				
1791.. Mar. 3.... Spirits.....		\$4,399,478 09	\$52,900,000	84
1792.. May 2.... General.....		2,448,070 85	81,500,000	11
1793..... General.....		4,255,306 58	81,100,000	184
1794.. June 7.... General.....		4,901,065 28	84,600,000	14
1795.. Jan. 29.... Supplementary.....		5,593,461 26	69,756,268	9
1796.....		6,567,967 94	81,484,164	84
1797.. Mar. 3.... General.....		7,549,649 65	75,979,406	10
1798.....		7,106,061 58	69,551,700	104
1799.....		6,610,449 81	79,069,148	84
1800.. Mar. 13.... Sugar & wines.....		9,090,989 78	91,252,768	94
1801.....		10,750,773 98	111,868,511	9
1802.....		12,458,285 74	70,888,833	16
1803.....		10,479,417 61	64,664,666	16
1804.. Mar. 26.... Mediterran. fund.....		11,093,545 33	85,000,000	14
1805.. Mar. 27.... Light money.....		12,936,437 04	120,600,000	104
1806.....		14,667,698 17	129,410,000	114
1807.....		15,845,521 61	188,500,000	114
1808.....		16,368,550 58	56,990,000	30
1809.....		7,996,020 58	59,400,000	19
1810.....		8,568,809 81	85,400,000	10
1811.....		13,813,222 78	53,400,000	25
1812.. July 1.... War: double dut.....		8,953,777 53	77,080,000	114
1813.. July 13.... Salt.....		13,224,628 23	22,005,000	60
1814.....		5,998,773 08	12,965,000	47
1815.....		7,932,943 29	13,041,274	55
1816.. April 27.... Min. for protec.....		26,306,974 88	147,103,000	25
1817.....		26,293,848 49	99,250,000	27
1818.. April 20.... Iron and alum.....		17,176,885 00	131,750,000	14
1819.. Mar. 3.... Wines.....		20,238,608 76	87,125,000	23
1820.....		15,005,612 15	74,450,000	204

	Customs.	Free.	Imports. Dutiable.	Total	Average on dut.
1821.....	18,475,708 57	10,092,318	52,508,411	62,585,724	25.6
1822.....	24,066,666 43	7,293,708	75,942,683	83,241,541	31.7
1823.....	22,403,024 29	9,043,293	69,530,979	77,579,267	32.7
1824.. May 22.... General rise.....	25,486,617 86	13,563,773	67,985,234	80,549,007	37.5
1825.....	31,638,571 50	10,947,510	52,392,565	96,840,075	37.1
1826.....	23,088,261 97	12,567,769	72,406,708	84,974,477	34.6
1827.....	27,943,256 67	11,835,104	67,693,364	79,484,068	41.3
1828.. May 19.... Min. extended.....	29,951,251 90	12,379,176	76,180,643	88,509,824	39.3

History of the United States Tariffs.

579

	Customs.	Free.	Imports.	Dutiable.	Total.	Average On dut.
1859.....	27,688,701 11	11,805,501	62,037,096	74,492,537	44.3	
1860.. May 30....	Coff., tea, molass. 28,889,505 05	12,746,245	58,180,675	70,976,920	43.8	
1881.....	36,596,118 19	18,456,625	80,784,499	108,191,124	40.3	
1882.. July 14....	Modifications... 29,341,175 65	14,249,453	84,779,813	101,029,266	33.3	
1883.. March 2... Compromise.....	24,177,578 52	32,447,950	75,670,361	108,118,811	31.9	
1884.....	18,960,705 96	63,393,180	58,128,152	126,521,332	32.6	
1885.....	25,890,726 66	77,940,498	71,955,349	149,895,742	36.0	
1886.....	30,513,327 67	92,056,481	97,923,554	189,980,085	31.6	
1887.....	18,184,181 01	69,250,081	71,739,186	140,969,217	25.8	
1888.....	19,702,825 45	60,960,005	53,857,399	113,717,404	37.3	
1889.....	25,554,583 96	76,401,792	85,690,340	162,092,132	29.9	
1890.....	15,104,790 63	57,196,204	49,945,815	107,141,519	30.4	
1891.. Sept. 11... Free list taxed.....	19,919,492 17	66,019,731	61,926,446	127,946,177	32.3	
1892.. Aug. 30... General rise.....	16,662,746 84	30,627,486	60,534,601	100,162,087	28.1	
1893.....	10,308,000 43	35,574,584	29,179,215	64,753,799	23.7	
1894.....	29,236,357 38	24,766,881	83,668,154	108,425,085	35.1	
1895.....	30,952,416 21	22,147,840	95,106,724	117,254,564	32.5	
1896.....	Revenue tariff. 26,712,663 00	24,767,739	96,224,053	121,691,797	26½	
1897.....	23,747,865 00	41,773,636	104,773,002	146,545,639	22½	
1898.....	31,757,071 00	22,716,603	132,232,825	154,993,928	24	
1899.....	23,346,739 00	22,376,661	125,479,774	147,857,439	23	
1900.....	39,668,686 00	22,710,882	155,427,936	178,138,318	25.2	
1901.....	49,017,563 00	25,006,587	191,118,345	216,224,932	26	
1902.....	47,339,326 00	29,692,934	133,252,503	212,945,442	26	
1903.....	53,931,805 00	31,388,534	236,595,113	267,973,647	25	
1904.....	64,224,190 00	33,285,321	271,276,560	304,562,381	23.5	
1905.....	53,025,794 00	40,090,386	221,378,184	261,468,570	23	
1906.....	64,022,863 00	26,958,706	257,634,286	314,639,942	25	
1907.. March 3... General.....	63,375,905 00	66,729,306	294,160,835	360,890,141	21.5	
1908.....	41,739,621 00	30,319,375	202,293,375	232,613,150	20	
1909.....	49,565,824 00	79,721,116	259,047,014	338,763,130	19	
1910.....	53,187,511 00	90,341,749	279,872,337	362,163,941	19	
1911.. Feb. 23 present. Partly est.	45,000,000 00	70,000,000	225,000,000	295,000,000	20	

RECAPITULATION.

Date of Tariff.	Time of operation.	Average per an. in mill.	Gross Revenue.	Dutiable Imports.	Average duty.
1821 to 1824.....	4 years.....	24.....	\$90,436,612.....	\$264,962,457.....	34½
1824 to 1828.....	4 years.....	29.....	115,597,942.....	301,538,835.....	38½
1828 to 1832.....	4 years.....	30.....	122,615,500.....	297,332,015.....	41½
1832 to 1841.....	9 years.....	22.....	198,263,107.....	625,336,002.....	31½
1842.....	1 year.....	16.....	16,622,746.....	69,534,601.....	23½
1842 to 1846.....	4 years.....	25.....	97,109,442.....	295,178,151.....	33
1846 to 1857.....	10 years.....	52.....	523,957,872.....	2,173,423,818.....	24½
1857 to 1860.....	3 years.....	43.....	144,542,956.....	741,213,216.....	20½
Total.....	39	34	\$1,308,546,177	\$4,709,024,145	29

Having thus briefly sketched the leading circumstances that have attended the enactment of each of the tariffs passed since the formation of the government, we may here give from official sources a table showing the date and nature of the tariffs passed since the formation of the government; the amount of customs collected in each year, and the amount of imports on which these duties were paid.

Up to the year 1821, there were no official tables that would distinguish the free from the dutiable imports, and the total imports given before that year, are the estimates of the department. Since 1821, the amount of imports has been accurately reported. In the recapitulation, we have shown the amount of custom duties collected under each bill, and the whole amount of goods on which they were paid. It will be observed that the amount of imports, as well as the sum of the duties, seems to have fluctuated more in proportion to the general activity based upon financial prosperity, than upon the actual amount of tax levied. Thus, in the year 1842, which was one of great depression, after the financial revulsion then just passed, the average duty was twenty-three one-quarter per cent., and the revenue but sixteen millions six hundred thousand dollars, on the other hand, between the years 1846 and 1857, an average duty of twenty-four one-half per cent., gave an annual average revenue of fifty-two million dollars, or more than three times what the same average tax produced in 1842. Again in the four years ending with 1842, the average tax was forty-one one-half per cent., and the average annual product thirty millions; in the three years ending with 1860, the average tax was twenty one-quarter per cent., and the product forty-eight millions per annum. Thus, half the tax gave double the revenue. These facts, with others disclosed by the table, show that the rate of duty levied is a very unsafe guide as to the amount of revenue to be derived from it. The general circumstances of business, as well abroad, as at home, has far more influence upon the flow of importations than the tax which is relatively lighter or more onerous, in proportion to the range of prices that rise or fall under the influence of speculation or its revulsion.

The interests of domestic industry have uniformly had an important influence upon the various modifications that the protective character of the tariffs has from time to time undergone. Since the formation of the government the progress of manufactures has been very rapid, since in 1850, the annual value so produced, was reported at over one thousand millions, an interest which on its face is large. With this development, the proportion per cent. of similar goods imported has decreased. The home manufacturers have had more command of capital, and have been enabled to adopt and apply the newest inventions for the improvement of qualities and the reduction of cost. They have, therefore, found their position annually stronger. As a consequence, the Eastern and Northern interest, which in the early years of the government passed from a commercial to a manufacturing interest, that is, from free trade to protection, have latterly become more indifferent to the exclusion of foreign wares, but have sought their interests in cheaper materials; and this disposition has elicited an opposition from the Western agriculturists, who cling to protection for raw materials. Meanwhile, the trade of the country has become so largely developed, that a moderate tax upon the whole amount of imports gives a revenue which should be ample to an economical administration of the government.

VOTES BY STATES ON THE PASSAGE OF THE GENERAL TARIFF LAWS.

The following table shows the votes given in the House of Representatives on the passage of each of the general tariffs passed since that of 1789, the changing character of the vote East, South, and West, while the steady vote of the northern Middle States is conspicuous for its adherence to high rates.

	1780.	1791. Bel'd duty on spirits.	MAY 2, 1792.	MARCH 3, 1797.	Med. from MAY 24, 1804.	JULY 1, 1812.	APRIL 27, 1816.	MAY 22, 1824.	MAY 20, 1828.	JULY 14, 1832.	Compromise, FEB. 26, 1833.	1842.	1846.	1857.
Maine.....	Yea. Nay.	Yea. Nay.	Yea. Nay.	Yea. Nay.	Yea. Nay.	Yea. Nay.	Yea. Nay.	Yea. Nay.	Yea. Nay.	Yea. Nay.	Yea. Nay.	Yea. Nay.	Yea. Nay.	Yea. Nay.
New Hampshire.....	2..1	8..	2..1	4..	8..	3..1	1..8	1..6	4..2	6..1	6..1	4..2	5..1	6..
Vermont.....	1..1	1..1	1..1	4..	8..	3..1	5..1	5..5	4..2	5..	4..1	4..4	8..1	2..1
Massachusetts.....	8..	8..	6..	10..1	12..	2..13	7..4	1..11	2..11	4..8	13..	10..1	1..9	9..
Connecticut.....	8..2	5..	4..	7..1	8..	6..	2..2	5..1	4..2	2..3	6..	6..	1..4	9..4
Rhode Island.....	4..1	4..2	1..	1..1	2..	5..9	20..2	26..8	1..1	27..2	11..19	23..8	15..14	15..10
New York.....	2..	3..3	5..	5..7	15..	16..2	17..3	24..1	27..6	3..3	4..21	20..	2..23	3..15
Pennsylvania.....	7..	1..	3..	5..1	6..	5..3	5..	6..	5..	8..	9..	1..	1..	4..1
Delaware.....	1..	1..3	1..	5..3	17..	14..7	2..5	3..6	1..5	8..	9..	4..9	1..1	4..1
Maryland.....	3..2	1..3	3..	5..5	6..	6..3	7..13	1..21	3..15	11..8	20..1	8..17	13..1	13..
Virginia.....	5..	4..4	8..5	5..2	9..	6..3	11	13	13	8..4	13	10	7..3	4..
North Carolina.....	8..1	1..2	3..2	3..1	5..	6..1	4..8	7..	8..	2..6	9..	5..	6..2	4..
South Carolina.....	8..	..8	..3	2..	2..	4..	3..3	11..	13..	1..6	12..	1..7	5..2	7..2
Georgia.....	1..	6..	3..	6..1	11..	13..	9..	8..1	4..13	11..6	7..15
Kentucky.....	2..	3..	3..2	14..	18..	13..	11..6	8..13	5..6	6..8
Tennessee.....	1..	1..	4..	2..7	8..	10..	9..	2..1	3..1	3..4
Ohio.....1	2..3	3..8	13..	11..6	6..13	5..6	4..8
Louisiana.....	1..	1..	8..	9..	2..1	3..1	3..4
Indiana.....	2..	3..	13..	11..6	6..13	5..6	4..8
Illinois.....	1..	1..	8..	9..	2..1	3..1	3..4
Alabama.....	1..	1..	8..	9..	2..1	3..1	3..4
Mississippi.....	1..	1..	8..	9..	2..1	3..1	3..4
Arkansas.....	1..	1..	8..	9..	2..1	3..1	3..4
Florida.....	1..	1..	8..	9..	2..1	3..1	3..4
California.....	1..	1..	8..	9..	2..1	3..1	3..4
Iowa.....	1..	1..	8..	9..	2..1	3..1	3..4
Wisconsin.....	1..	1..	8..	9..	2..1	3..1	3..4
40..15	35..21	37..30	60..21	93..	76..43	83..54	107..102	105..94	132..63	119..53	103..99	114..95	122..71	

SUMMARY OF LAKE DISASTERS, 1851-1860.

Compiled for the report of the seventh annual meeting of the Board of Lake Underwriters, held at New York City, February 19, 1861.

MANNER OF LOSS.	1851.		1852.		1853.		1854.		1855.	
	NO.	\$ LOSS.	NO.	\$ LOSS.	NO.	\$ LOSS.	NO.	\$ LOSS.	NO.	\$ LOSS.
Steamers.										
Wrecked and Sunk.....	2	27,000	3	125,000	3	123,000	4	110,000	4	378,500
Stranded.....	5	26,700	5	14,700	7	51,000	2	110,000	11	11,850
Fire.....	2	25,600	2	22,000	3	156,000	2	110,000	3	44,000
Damaged, &c.....	13	110,300	9	18,600	19	54,700	24	77,900	26	66,800
Jettison.....	2	14,000	1	25,000
Collision.....	9	4,000	16	153,850	11	31,650	8	31,200	12	32,600
Derrick.....	20,000
Total.....	32	215,500	37	352,650	43	412,350	41	463,400	56	582,750
Propellers.										
Wrecked and sunk.....	2	55,000	4	85,000	1	42,000	5	370,000	7	351,000
Stranded.....	6	32,300	5	6,900	7	23,900	11	9,950
Fire.....	3	67,500	2	130,000
Damaged, &c.....	5	5,000	11	33,000	10	24,500	30	63,100	34	228,150
Jettison.....	4	18,300	2	2,200	7	47,500	4	13,100
Collision.....	10	40,400	9	73,450	4	3,900	8	69,500	19	557,750
Sunk and Raised.....
Total.....	23	133,300	36	274,050	24	101,500	52	690,100	75	1,159,950
Barques.										
Wrecked and Sunk.....	2	22,000	2	19,500	3	56,000	6	116,000
Stranded.....	5	4,500	6	10,800
Fire.....
Damaged.....	1	150	5	4,600	13	37,100	17	46,950
Jettison.....	1	4,000	2	5,000
Collision.....	1	200	2	55,000	5	9,900
Total.....	5	26,350	12	28,600	17	148,100	36	157,750
Brigs.										
Wrecked and Sunk.....	3	42,000	7	52,400	2	43,000	5	63,000	7	118,300
Stranded.....	22	30,000	13	23,600	10	15,300	8	8,550
Fire.....
Damaged.....	21	45,700	12	19,750	17	24,500	43	64,125	51	39,950
Jettison.....	1	6,000	8	22,500	
Collision.....	7	16,300	6	3,850	2	2,500	6	51,000	11	26,100
Total.....	53	133,900	38	101,100	31	85,300	55	184,125	85	215,400
Schooners.										
Wrecked and Sunk.....	20	89,000	21	109,300	22	111,700	41	382,630	26	182,300
Stranded.....	63	53,250	43	70,500	43	64,300	91	161,600
Fire.....	2	7,500	1	5,500	3	9,400	2	22,500	1	800
Damaged.....	39	57,765	30	24,790	60	73,500	139	216,450	135	212,179
Jettison.....	3	2,700	2	1,150	4	7,300	20	30,270	14	33,510
Collision.....	15	34,500	13	24,950	13	21,200	9	49,150	35	97,000
Flood at Chicago.....
Total.....	150	244,715	130	236,190	150	237,300	204	701,000	302	637,389
Scows.										
Wrecked and sunk.....	2	1,700	1	1,200	2	6,000	1	2,000
Stranded.....	2	700	1	150	4	3,600
Fire.....
Damaged.....	2	800	3	875	2	1,100	11	3,300	6	6,900
Jettison.....	1	500	1	100
Collision.....	1	500	1	1,800
Total.....	6	3,200	4	725	3	2,300	15	10,300	13	14,600
Summary.										
Steamboats.....	32	215,500	37	352,650	43	412,350	41	463,400	56	582,750
Propellers.....	23	133,300	36	274,050	24	101,500	52	690,100	75	1,159,950
Barques.....	5	26,350	12	28,600	17	148,100	36	157,750
Brigs.....	53	133,900	38	101,100	31	85,300	55	184,125	85	215,400
Schooners.....	150	244,715	130	236,190	150	237,300	204	701,000	302	637,389
Scows.....	6	3,200	4	725	3	2,300	15	10,300	13	14,600
Derrick.....	20,000
Total 1851-1855.....	264	730,515	240	991,065	263	944,350	384	2,187,825	567	2,797,839

SUMMARY OF LAKE DISASTERS [Continued], 1851-1860.

Compiled for the report of the seventh annual meeting of the Board of Lake Underwriters, held at New York City, February 19, 1861.

MANNER OF LOSS.	1856.		1857.		1858.		1859.		1860.	
	NO.	\$ LOSS.	NO.	\$ LOSS.	NO.	\$ LOSS.	NO.	\$ LOSS.	NO.	\$ LOSS.
Steamers.										
Wrecked and Sunk.....	7	159,000	4	49,200	4	23,900	4	2,900	3	65,000
Stranded.....	15	71,800	5	9,250	6	18,400	4	16,800	5	4,900
Fire.....	4	230,000	6	123,500	2	28,000	1	12,000	2	3,500
Damaged, &c.....	16	92,100	17	28,950	18	11,875	20	20,685	17	17,715
Jettison.....	2	3,200	1	100	1	3,500	1	2,500
Collision.....	9	61,600	8	9,650	6	11,900	3	800	6	47,400
Total.....	53	617,790	40	223,250	37	98,375	38	56,685	34	148,015
Propellers.										
Wrecked and sunk.....	7	379,800	1	17,300	1	10,100	7	225,050	7	253,500
Stranded.....	19	158,560	17	88,110	7	4,700	16	13,760	11	28,800
Fire.....	6	222,600	4	45,200	5	26,700	1	100	3	33,000
Damaged, &c.....	23	41,700	33	59,982	20	20,150	24	12,540	30	17,493
Jettison.....	2	10,100	1	8,000	2	25,580	3	2,150	3	6,775
Collision.....	16	76,700	9	36,000	7	4,350	7	41,250	5	9,900
Total.....	73	888,960	65	254,542	42	91,880	58	294,850	59	349,368
Barques.										
Wrecked and Sunk.....	1	34,000	3	23,000	5	32,300	4	10,300
Stranded.....	10	66,500	8	57,550	5	31,278	5	6,740	5	33,225
Fire.....
Damaged, &c.....	17	32,650	10	13,550	14	9,150	15	24,100	7	2,900
Jettison.....	1	4,000	1	1,364
Collision.....	9	10,550	5	2,850	2	1,050	3	2,575	6	3,150
Total.....	38	147,700	27	98,314	26	123,778	23	33,415	22	49,575
Brigs.										
Wrecked and Sunk.....	4	56,200	5	19,850	2	6,400	6	35,100	4	23,600
Stranded.....	29	67,200	18	63,370	6	23,210	10	15,900	9	28,120
Fire.....
Damaged, &c.....	22	15,250	14	6,500	15	13,380	9	5,630	7	5,325
Jettison.....	5	15,000	1	700	1	700	1	600
Collision.....	12	45,250	6	9,200	3	650	6	25,700	4	650
Total.....	73	208,900	44	99,620	26	43,590	32	58,030	25	60,495
Schooners.										
Wrecked and Sunk.....	45	567,625	53	301,000	24	172,660	18	64,688	21	143,950
Stranded.....	118	436,974	105	186,675	59	90,640	78	279,381	75	197,372
Fire.....	1	6,000	3	3,550
Damaged, &c.....	113	105,550	67	52,574	83	46,955	121	101,732	85	48,293
Jettison.....	18	16,000	17	25,400	5	7,450	15	11,064	3	1,970
Collision.....	46	119,650	34	79,850	34	22,080	34	68,005	31	86,790
Total.....	340	1,245,799	277	651,559	205	389,741	269	523,420	215	478,375
Scows.										
Wrecked and sunk.....	4	9,100	9	42,900	11	20,550	5	8,250	12	57,600
Stranded.....	7	7,645	6	2,700	9	7,668	11	18,450	8	6,195
Fire.....	1	1,200
Damaged, &c.....	2	600	10	6,400	5	6,650	7	1,650	2	1,250
Jettison.....	1	100	2	150
Collision.....	1	150	2	400	1	50	2	350	3	4,962
Total.....	15	17,595	28	60,600	26	34,918	25	28,700	27	70,187
Summary.										
Steamboats.....	53	617,790	40	223,250	37	98,375	38	56,685	34	148,015
Propellers.....	73	888,960	65	254,542	42	91,880	58	294,850	59	349,368
Barques.....	38	147,700	27	98,314	26	123,778	23	33,415	22	49,575
Brigs.....	73	208,900	44	99,620	26	43,590	32	58,030	25	60,495
Schooners.....	340	1,245,799	277	651,559	205	389,741	269	523,420	215	478,375
Scows.....	15	17,595	28	60,600	26	34,918	25	28,700	27	70,187
Derrick.....
Total 1856-1860.	590	3,126,744	461	1,387,895	363	732,232	440	1,020,100	382	1,156,015

MARINE LOSSES FOR MARCH, 1861.

* The first column refers to the dates of the New York papers wherein full information of the disasters can be obtained.

DATE	STEAMERS.	MASTERS.	TONS.	WHERE BUILT.	DAY	HAIL FROM.	WHERE FROM.	WHERE TO.	DISASTERS.	VESSEL AND FREIGHT.	CARGO.	TOTAL.
12	Australasian (Br.)	Hockley	1760	Glasgow,	1857	Glasgow,	Liverpool,	New York,	Br's propeller & put back Queens'town, Mr. 2	\$25,000	\$10,000	\$35,000
1	Gen. Flores	Libby	115	New York,	1860	Wilmington,	New York,	Callao,	Put into St. Thomas, in distress, Feb. 9	6,000	6,000
1	Hankow	Sands	120	New York,	1860	New York,	New York,	Hong Kong,	Dam in G. Strm. Feb. 30. Put b. at rep.	7,500	7,500
1	Mount Vernon	Layfield	632	Greenpoint,	1856	New York,	New York,	Washington,	Ashore on Old Inlet Bar (off), Mar. 3	20,000	10,000	30,000
1	Monarch	J. Smith,	800	Ohio River,	1856	Cincinnati,	Cincinnati,	New Orleans,	Struck rock, & sink n. Fall at Louisville, Mr. 1	22,000	40,000	62,000
19	Uncle Sam	Wilson,	1483	New York,	1852	New York,	Panama,	San Francisco,	Brake shaft, and put in a capulco, Feb. 19	15,000	6,000	21,000
19	Valley City	Chapman,	190	Philadelphia,	1859	Philadelphia,	New York,	Dorby, Ct.	Ashore in Black Rock Harbor, Ct.	2,000	1,000	3,000
7 Steamers.....Totals,										\$102,500	\$66,000	\$168,500
SHIPS.												
15	Bella Marina (Br.)	Harris	1046	Hopewell, N.H.	1855	St. Johns, N.B.	Liverpool,	San Francisco,	Put into Belfast, loss sails, &c. (coal) Feb. 28	\$1,000	\$900	\$1,900
23	Conquest (Br.)	Johnson,	1024	Somerville, Ma.	1854	Boston,	Mobile,	Liverpool,	Ashore in Caernarvon Bay, Ireh, Jan. 17	55,000	25,000	80,000
16	Cowper	Lowell	500	Medford,	1854	Boston,	Matavieo,	New York,	Put into Rio Janeiro, leaky, Jan. 15	6,000	6,000
16	Cygnat	Moss	806	Plymouth, Ma.	1854	Boston,	Eastport,	Bristol, E.	Put into Bermuda, leaky, Jan. 24	1,000	1,000
15	Dromo	May	1104	Quebec,	1854	Belfast,	New York,	Liverpool,	Put into Fayal, leaky, jett cargo, Feb. 5	1,000	3,000	4,000
26	Danube (Br.)	Hedy	1093	Newcastle Me.	1853	Boston,	New Orleans,	San Francisco,	Tot. loss at St. Patrick's Causeway, Wal, Mr. 6	52,000	95,000	147,000
26	Flying Eagle	Walden,	510	Portland, Ct.	1845	Southport,	Liverpool,	Savannah,	Put into Montevideo, in distress, Jan. 1	3,000	3,000
26	Harford	Davis,	757	Bath,	1849	Bath,	Fleetwood,	New Orleans,	Put into Neamaria, lost sails, &c., Feb. 22	6,500	3,000	9,500
26	Hero	Stanwood,	313	Rochester,	1816	Nantucket,	Nantucket,	New Orleans,	Total loss in Algea Bay, Jan. 27	1,000	1,000
26	Hesperus	Hussey,	1019	Medford,	1856	Rosier,	Liverpool,	Whaling,	Total loss by fire at W. upon com. coal) Jan. 8	20,000	3,000	23,000
23	Hobspur	Dudley,	863	New York,	1857	New York,	New York,	Woonung,	Ret. to N. Y. leaky, struck on bar,	43,000	10,000	53,000
1	Isabella	Coffin,	840	Wicasset,	1855	Wicasset,	Massachu.	Hong Kong,	Put into St. Thomas, leaky, goods, &c., Feb. 9	6,000	3,000	9,000
2	Isabel	Norton,	437	Matapoisett,	1854	New Bedford,	Massachu.	Falmouth, E.	Total loss at Pulo Penang, Dec. 15	15,000	10,000	25,000
1	John Owens (Br.)	F. A. Stall,	1168	Nova Scotia,	1853	St. Johns, N.B.	Pacific,	Siam,	Abandoned, Lat. 25° Lon. 89° Jan. 12	53,000	40,000	93,000
23	Judith	Brown,	923	Namiascotia,	1853	New Bedford,	Calcutta,	England,	Total loss Cape Corrientes, Cuba, Mr. 19	43,000	49,000	92,000
22	Kutusoff	E. A. Stall,	410	New Bedford,	1854	New Bedford,	New York,	New Orleans,	Put into Rio Janeiro, in dist. and dnm, Jan. 12	6,000	10,000	16,000
22	Liverpool Packet	Rogers,	589	Boston,	1840	Boston,	Liverpool,	Boston,	Put into Falmouth, Eng., leaky, Feb. 5	15,000	5,000	20,000
12	Leonine	Eggs,	324	Merrimack,	1844	Bremen,	New York,	London,	Missing since Nov. 26th	9,000	9,000
13	Macomono	G. B. Swamy,	884	Dunbarton,	1853	Newburyport,	New York,	London,	Put into Falmouth, Eng., leaky, Feb. 5	17,000	25,000	42,000
13	Prince Arthur (Br.)	Rankin,	991	Bath, Me.	1853	Bath,	Liverpool,	Penascola,	Put into Belfast, lost sails, &c., Feb. 28	1,500	1,500
20	Pocahontas	Delano,	1088	St. Johns, N.B.	1853	Bath,	New Orleans,	Liverpool,	Ashore near, off, and at Key West, Mar. 7	12,000	30,000	42,000
26	Rowan Tree	Worrell,	919	W. Haler,	1857	Liverpool,	Calcutta,	New Orleans,	Put in Mauritius, in dis., Feb. 6	8,500	6,000	14,500
1	Speedwell	Gibbs,	496	Baltimore,	1853	Fairhaven,	Honolulu,	Fairhaven,	Lost in Caernarvon Bay, Feb. 6	45,000	15,000	60,000
12	Susan G. Owens	Norton,	755	Dartmouth,	1851	New Bedford,	Newport, E.	Charleston,	Ashore on Folly Isl. (off & at Charleston) Mr. 9	23,000	6,000	29,000
9	Tropic Bird	Smith,	217	Dartmouth,	1851	New Bedford,	Sydney,	Manilla,	Lost maimed on voyage (ac. at N.) De. 22	2,000	2,000
19	Thos. Lowry (Br.)	Demeter,	683	Dartmouth,	1855	Greenock,	Greenock,	Kurrachee,	Abandoned, Lat. 26° S. Lon. 78° E., Dec. 23	32,000	15,000	47,000
25	Vocalist (Br.)	Fleet,	1004	St. Johns, N.B.	1856	Greenock,	Callao,	England,	Abandoned, Feb. 7	42,000	64,000	106,000
11	Victory	Trout,	670	Newburyport,	1852	New York,	Callao,	Hampton B'd,	Total loss on Cape Henry, Feb. 8	32,000	35,000	67,000
19	W. D. Sowell	Reed,	673	Bath,	1852	Bath,	Bristol, E.	Swansea,	Towed into Bristol, dismasted, Feb. 21	5,000	2,000	7,000
2	Waverly	Reed,	749	Charlestown,	1853	Boston,	New York,	Havre,	Tow. into Castle Hav. Har. jett cargo, &c. Feb. 2	9,500	12,000	21,500
31 Ships.....Totals,										\$577,000	\$565,800	\$1,142,800

DATE	BARKS.	MASTERS.	TONN.	WHERE BUILT.	DATE	HAILED FROM.	WHERE FROM.	WHERE TO.	DISASTERS.	VESSEL AND FREIGHT	CARGO.	TOTAL.
15	Alisa (Br.)	Main.	613	Nova Scotia.	1850	Cardiff.	Liverpool.	Moblie.	Put into Belfast, lost sails, &c., Feb. 23.	\$1,000	\$1,000
27	Columbus (Br.)	Anderson,	467	Whitby.	1857	Falmouth.	Pennacola.	Dublin.	Aband. Lat. 34° 40' Lon. 73° 09' Mar. 16.	12,000	15,000	27,000
29	California (Am.)	Ivach.	469	Flume.	1857	Triste.	Cardiff.	New York.	At Bermuda, in dis. and ditch. Feb. 22.	4,500	3,000	7,500
11	Cynthia Wright	Plummer,	223	Baltimore.	1846	Baltimore.	New York.	Gibraltar.	At Gibraltar, in dis. cond. & sold. Feb. 19.	6,000	4,000	10,000
15	Cyprio (Aust.)	Bunnick,	4-6	Lussino.	1858	Lussino.	Genoa.	New York.	Put back to Gibraltar, leaky, &c., Feb. 17.	4,500	3,000	7,500
28	Dulwars	Young.	299	Damariscotta.	1848	Hamburg.	New London.	(Whaling)	Total loss at Seamon's Lagoon, Feb. 17.	12,000	1,000	13,000
16	Gundels (Br.)	L. Eckman,	426	Greenock.	1840	Boston.	Richmond.	Bremen.	Cut by ice and sunk in Lower Weer, Feb. 4.	12,000	45,000	57,000
11	Homer.	Ray.	360	Milbridge.	1860	Boston.	Gaboon.	New York.	Aband. at sea, Lat. 41° Lon. 70° Feb. 18.	30,000	25,000	55,000
11	Hiawatha	D. H. Hall,	574	Bristol, Me.	1849	New York.	Haute.	New York.	Aband. at sea, Lat. 84° Lon. 70° Feb. 18.	9,000	24,000	33,000
20	Harvest Queen.	J. Wheeler,	994	New York.	1860	New York.	Buenos Ayres.	Baltimore.	Ashore at Plymouth, Eng., off	3,000	1,500	4,500
11	Ida.	Smith.	312	Hingham.	1859	Provincetown.	Messina.	Boston.	Ashore at Saluato (off), Mar. 19.	10,000	5,000	15,000
16	John Leslie.	Wobster,	397	Robbinston.	1852	New York.	New York.	Liverpool.	Total loss on Cape Henry, Mar. 19.	6,500	7,000	13,500
30	J. J. Johnson	Blake,	634	Yarmouth, NS	1854	Yarmouth.	Boston.	Boston.	Lost cargo, lost sails, bulwarks, &c., Jan. 21.	4,000	8,000	12,000
12	Mary Leonard (Br.)	Kirk.	498	Cherryfield.	1860	Boston.	Buenos Ayres.	Cadiz.	Put into Fayal, leaky, jet cargo, &c., Feb. 4.	3,700	16,000	19,700
15	Neslor	Howes,	400	E. Boston.	1856	Boston.	Boston.	Matanzas.	Total loss on Cruz del Padre Cay, Mar. 16.	4,500	6,500	11,000
25	Ocean Guide.	Woodward,	254	Portsmouth.	1854	Portsmouth.	Palermo.	Alexandria, E.	In gale, Lat. 38° Lon. 23°, jet cargo, &c., Jan. 18.	4,000	2,000	6,000
27	Phenix (Br.)	Christison,	365	Liverpool.	1859	Liverpool.	Honduras.	Boston.	At Gibraltar, mast sprung, &c., Feb. 14.	6,500	2,000	8,500
26	Sabrina (Br.)	Francis,	398	Yarmouth.	1855	Yarmouth.	Newport, E.	Galveston.	Aband. Lat. 46° Lon. 10°, Feb. 14.	9,500	5,000	14,500
20	Thos. Kilham (Br.)	Crosby,	556	Bath, Me.	1856	New York.	London.	London.	Total loss near Key West, Mar. 15.	12,500	15,000	27,500
20	Tinos	Bennett,	528	Bath, Me.	1856	New York.	London.	St. Johns, N.B.	Missing since Oct. 31.	4,500	2,500	7,000
1	Tonquin	Batchelder,	407	Bath, Me.	1852	Boston.	Shanghai.	Japan.	Put into Machias, dismasted, Mar. 10.	25,000	12,000	37,000
15	Tom Corwin.	Norton,	250	Seituate.	1847	Boston.	Glasgow.	Santos.	Total loss near Hakodadi, Japan, Jan. 15.	17,000	23,000	40,000
7	Vindolana (Br.)	Locke,	398	Newcastle.	1857	Newcastle.	Boston.	Cienfuegos.	Foundered off Wicklow Head, Feb. 9.	7,000	15,000	22,000
12	Warwick	Blackwell,	461	Portland, Me.	1845	New Bedford.	New York.	Gloucester, E.	Total loss on the reef near Trinidad, Mr. 7.	16,000	30,000	46,000
		Duverger,	337	Bangor, Me.,	1843	New Orleans.	Alexandria.	San Francisco.	Ashore at Breaksea, near Cardif, Feb. 6.	8,500	2,000	10,500
							Cadiz.	Montevideo.	At St. Catharines, in dis. leaky, &c., Jan. 1.	8,500	5,000	13,500
									Tot. loss ent. of harbor of Montevideo, Jan. 4.	\$243,200	\$305,000	\$548,200
									28 Barks.			
									Totals.			
26	A. E. Moore	Ray.	180	Pittston, N. J.	1851	Chelsea.	Moblie.	Cuba.	Put in Nassau in distress, Feb. 26.	\$1,000	\$1,000
4	Adeline Sprague	Smith.	211	Damariscotta.	1854	Boston.	Madeira.	Tercelra.	Total loss at Tercelra, Jan. 26.	10,000	16,000	26,000
13	Aurate	Davis,	298	Somerset, Mass.	1855	Providence.	Boston.	Matanzas.	Put into Newport in distress, March 11.	1,000	1,000
19	Bonaparte	Nickerson,	220	Charl'stown, M.	1849	Boston.	Jamaica.	New York.	Put into Key West, leaky, March 1.	2,500	1,000	3,500
25	Hannah East.	Colburn,	171	Machias.	1852	Machias.	Boston.	Savannah.	Put into New York, leaky, sprung, &c.,	2,000	2,000
21	Homar (Br.)	Crane,	227	Pool.	1841	Liverpool.	New York.	Dublin.	Ashore at Plymouth, Mass.; off, March 23.	1,900	3,000	4,900
27	Iris	Pearce,	134	Windsor, N. S.	1851	Windsor.	Cienfuegos.	New York.	Colbrig Madeira, tot. loss n'r Matanza, Feb. 17.	4,500	25,000	29,500
27	John E. Dow	Colby,	242	Rockland.	1854	Bristol, R. I.	Cardenas.	New York.	Total loss near Cardenas, March 11.	9,000	96,000	105,000
25	Johanna (Han.)	Krooster,	193	Brunswick, Me.	1846	Providence.	Wilmington, NC	Providence.	Abandoned, Lat. 37° Lon. 74° March 15.	6,000	8,000	14,000
24	Laurita	Brown,	205	Greifswald.	1858	Greifswald.	Newcastle.	New York.	Abandoned, Lat. 38° Lon. 66° Feb. 21.	9,000	14,000	23,000
1	La Grange	Huf,	180	Duxbury.	1846	New York.	Matanza.	Portland.	Ashore at Wood Island, near Saco, March 25.	3,900	6,000	9,900
			336	Gardner, Me.,	1854	New York.	Cardif.	Sagual Grande	At Guadaloupe, partly dismasted, Feb. 2.	1,700	1,700

MARINE LOSSES FOR MARCH 1861. (CONTINUED.)

DATE	BRIGS.	MASTERS.	TONS.	WHERE BUILT.	DATE.	WENT FROM.	WHERE TO.	DRAFTS.	VERM. ELEMENT.	CARGO.	TOTAL.
25	Louise (Fr.)	Ducasse.	166	La Boque,	1849	Bordeaux,	Charleston,	Put into Charleston in distress, March 21,	\$1,500		\$1,500
27	Molunuk	J. Mitchell,	911	Eastport, N.S.	1853	Eastport, N.S.	Charleston, S.C.	Abandoned, Lat. 24° Lon. 74°, March 20,	4,500	12,000	16,500
27	Meassar (Br.)	Whipple,	914	Wilmington, N.S.	1856	Windsor, N.S.	London,	Missing since Nov. 6	10,500	52,000	62,500
11	Madeira	Morton,	881	Hallowell, Me.	1856	Boston.	Havana,	Col. w. brig Homer, put into Matanzas, Feb. 19	500		500
11	Mary D. Lane	R. A. Gardner,	897	Haddam, Ct.	1855	New York,	New York,	Abandoned, Lat. 28° Lon. 74°, Feb. 21,	14,000	30,000	44,000
23	Mungo Park	Gill,	908	Bangor,	1854	Boston,	Cadiz,	Arrived at Montevideo in distress, Jan. 11,	8,600	1,800	10,400
26	Trenton	Presay,	130	Calais, Me.	1851	Deer Isle,	Surham,	Put into Nassau in distress, March 12,	1,700	3,000	4,700
16	Tornado	Cunningham,	165	Eden, Me.	1852	Trenton,	Berlitz,	Put into Demarara, dismasted, Feb. 7,	1,500		1,500
28	Thomas Denison	Thibault,	180	Boothbay,	1851	Westport,	New Orleans,	Put into St. Thomas in distress, Feb. 24,	4,000	8,000	12,000
28	Union State	Hathaway,	192	Deep River, Ct.	1852	Norwich,	Portland,	Put into Norfolk, leaky Feb. 8,	2,700	1,800	4,500
18	Uranus	Foxwell,	234	Hallowell, Me.	1856	Baltimore,	Baltimore,	Put into Gibraltar, cond. and sold, Jan. 8,	3,000	1,000	4,000
15	Waltham	G. F. Church,	218	Hallowell, Me.	1856	New York,	Aux Cayes,	Put into Newport, in dis. & dismast, March 4,	2,800	4,500	7,300
28	Wm. A. Dresser	Clark,	184	Ellsworth,	1853	Ellsworth,	Buenos Ayres,	Put into St. Thomas, in distress, March 1,	1,300	1,500	2,800
28	Zillah (Br.)	Berabe,	134	Nova Scotia,	1853	Bangor,	New Haven,	Abandoned, Lat. 41° Long. 67° 10', Mar. 21,	4,500	15,000	19,500
27 Brigs.....										\$114,700	\$228,900
Totals.....											\$343,800
SCHOONERS.											
7	Adelaide	Nickerson,	91	Setuket,	1847	Boston,	St. Johns,	At St. Thomas, in distress, Feb. 14,	\$1,500	\$3,500	\$5,000
15	A. L. Finnell	Freeman,	176	Setuket,	1855	Oreans, C. C.	Valencia,	Put into Bermuda, in distress, March 2,	5,400	1,000	6,400
15	Bucephalus	Bannister,	108	Provincetown,	1858	Newburyport,	Boston,	Put into Newport, in distress, March 7,	500		500
11	Blackbird	B. E. Compton	236	Norfolk,	1854	Northport,	Boston,	At Provincetown, v. masts sprung, Mar. 8,	1,000		1,000
20	Belle	Payman,	149	Penns G., N. J.	1859	Penns G., N. J.	Galveston,	Put in Wilim'gton, N. C., lost sails, &c. Mar. 14	800	500	1,300
27	C. S. Lechan	Edicott,	240	Pt. Republic,	1860	Egg Harbor,	Franklin, La,	Abandon, Lat. 29° 19' Lon. 73° 09', Mar. 17,	10,000	24,000	34,000
14	Catharine Beal	Stute,	49	Waldoboro,	1859	New York,	New York,	Ashore at Gloucester—off, March 24,	500	800	1,300
26	D. B. Sexton	Burber,	217	Greenpoint,	1859	New York,	Brazos,	Ashore near reef near Gijara, Cuba, Mar. 6,	13,000	23,000	36,000
29	Dingo	Reuter,	845	Cleveland,	1855	Cleveland,	Ibraz,	Ashore near Reef—off, March 9,	1,200	1,000	2,200
26	D. F. Gale	Cool,	81	Essex, Me.,	1855	Philadelphia,	Cardenas,	Put into Savannah, in dis. leaky, Mar. 24,	3,000	2,500	5,500
12	Encerprise	Parhurst,	105	Essex, Me.,	1860	Gloucester,	In Port,	Total loss, drove ashore in herb. of G. Mar. 22	1,500	3,000	4,500
14	Knock Frail	Pinkham,	197	Fall River,	1849	Nantucket,	Boston,	Total loss on Egg Rock, O. Oct. March 9,	1,500	3,000	4,500
8	Pennmore Cooper	Sherman,	197	Fall River,	1846	Fall River,	Savannah,	Total loss on Curricket Inlet, March 13,	2,000	5,000	7,000
28	General Harrison	Spence,	81	New Jersey,	Hong Kong,	Shanghai,	Total loss four m. N. of Barasash, Mar. 25,	2,000	500	2,500
5	Grey Eagle	Haggerty,	81	New London,	1850	Westport, Me.	Gl. Egg Harbor	Put into Norfolk, leaky—will ditch, Feb. 24,	2,000	800	2,800
5	Green	Haggerty,	147	Warren, Me.,	1857	Lubec,	Providence,	Ash on Block Is. (off & at Newport), Feb. 27	500	500	1,000
18	H. N. Stanwood	P. Gorman,	84	Salisbury,	1859	Gloucester,	Fishing,	Missing Feb. 6	1,000		1,000
19	Hawaba	Evans,	137	Machia,	1847	Bermuda,	Inagua,	Total loss on reefs at Inagua, Feb. 5	4,000		4,000
26	Hibernia	Bradshaw,	99	Phillipsburg,	1847	Bath,	St. Thomas,	Total loss on Dulliver's Neck, Mar. 21	2,500		2,500
7	Ira Maller	Mulliner,	159	Patchogue,	1852	New York,	Wisasset,	Total loss on Cape Lookout, Feb. 27,	2,000	2,000	4,000
18	Israel H. Day	Chase,	250	Providence,	1853	Providence,	Norfolk,	Put into Norfolk, in distress, March 10,	1,000		1,000

DATE.	SCHOONERS.	MASTERS.	TONS.	WHERE BUILT.	DATE.	HAUL FROM.	WHERE FROM.	WHERE TO.	DISASTERS.	VESSEL AND PRESENT.	CARGO.	TOTAL.
1836	J. L. Ferguson.....	Chase,	128	Cape May,	1855	Jersey City,	Philadelphia,	Charleston, S.C.	Total loss at Cape Hatteras Inlet, Mar. 14,	\$4,500	\$3,000	\$7,500
1838	Jamesstown.....	Marshall,	286	Dorchester,	1853	Baltimore,	New York,	Richmond,	Ashore on the bar in James River, Mar. 11,	500	500	1,000
1839	Joseph Grice.....	247	Perth Amboy,	1854	New York,	Jamaica,	London,	Put into Key West, leaky, (disch.), Feb. 23,	3,000	3,000	5,000	
1840	John Boston.....	309	New York,	1854	New York,	Mobile,	Put into Key West, leaky, (disch.), Feb. 23,	13,000	20,000	33,000		
1841	John E. Pratt.....	237	Saxet, Ct.,	1850	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	1,500	1,000	2,500		
1842	John Fox.....	237	Saxet, Ct.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	13,000	30,000	43,000		
1843	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1844	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1845	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1846	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1847	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1848	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1849	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1850	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1851	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1852	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1853	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1854	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1855	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1856	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1857	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1858	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1859	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1860	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1861	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1862	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1863	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1864	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1865	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1866	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1867	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1868	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1869	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1870	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1871	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1872	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1873	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1874	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1875	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1876	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1877	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1878	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1879	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1880	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1881	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1882	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1883	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1884	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1885	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1886	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1887	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1888	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1889	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1890	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1891	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1892	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1893	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1894	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1895	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1896	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1897	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1898	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1899	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1900	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1901	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1902	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1903	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1904	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1905	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1906	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1907	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1908	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1909	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1910	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1911	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1912	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1913	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1914	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1915	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1916	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1917	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1918	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1919	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1920	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1921	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1922	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1923	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1924	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1925	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1926	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1927	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1928	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1929	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1930	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1931	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon, Lat. 33° 27' Lon. 75° 32', Mar. 15,	2,500	2,500	5,000		
1932	John Fox.....	153	Providence, R.I.,	1853	Providence, R.I.,	New York,	Abandon					

RECORD OF HURRICANES, GALES, &c.

Reported at New York during March, 1861.*

DATE OF OCCURRENCE	DIRECTION.	LOCATION, LAT. AND LONG., &c.	BY WHAT VESSEL REPORTED.	MASTER.	WHERE FROM.	WHERE TO.	REMARKS.
February 15.	W.N.W.	Off Cape Hatteras.	Schr. Harriet Newell.	Sherman.	Zara.	New York.	Lost sails and spars, &c.
February 24.	W.N.W.	North of Cape Hatteras.	Sp. Washington Booth.	Pescud.	Talcahuano.	Baltimore.	Lost sails and boat.
Feb. 25, 26.	Not reported.	Lat. 31° to Lat. 34°.	Bert Virginia Estelita.	Wilkins.	Rio Janeiro.	New York.	Lost headstee and sails.
do.	do.	Near Santos.	Schr. Samuel.	Jones.	Santos.	New York.	Lost sails and leaky.
do.	do.	Lat. 49° 47' lon. 25° 50'.	Ship Revenue.	Ottwell.	Liverpool.	New York.	Left Liverpool Jan. 13.
do.	do.	Lat. 80° S. long. 45°.	Ship Walther.	Clark.	Buenos Ayres.	Boston.	Lost spars, sails, leaky, &c.
do.	do.	Lat. 80° S. long. 45°.	Ship Great Republic.	Cooper.	Bermuda.	New York.	200 m. fr. 8 y Hook 10 d. ago.
do.	do.	Lat. 85° S. lon. 74°.	Ship Sparkling Sea.	Limburner.	New York.	San Francisco.	Left N.Y. Oct. 24, or SF Feb. 8.
do.	do.	Off River Plate.	Ship Carrier Dove.	F. A. Still.	Buenos Ayres.	New York.	Lost sails & put in 84. Thomas.
do.	do.	170 miles from Sandy Hook.	Ship Potomac.	Montell.	Callao.	San Francisco.	Lost mast &c. put into Rio.
do.	do.	8° of Cape Hatteras.	Ship Levantier (Br.).	Watson.	Savannah.	New York.	Blown off, sprung spars, &c.
do.	do.	Off Glasgow New York.	(Many vessels.)	Raymond.	Glasgow.	New York.	55 days out.
do.	do.	Off Baltimore and New York.	Ship Boston Light.	Rowley.	Chautau.	New York.	Many disasters reported.
do.	do.	Off Ballycotton.	" David Stewart.	Orr.	Liverpool.	Baltimore.	Afterward N.W. gale.
do.	do.	Off Cape Hatteras.	Brig Anna Wellington.	Prentiss.	Baltimore.	Liverpool.	Put back to Liverpool.
do.	do.	60 miles S. Nantucket.	" Aurice.	Scwers.	Buenos Ayre.	New York.	Shifted cargo. Ar. L. Feb. 21.
do.	do.	Lat. 23° Lon. 76°.	" Aladdin.	Davis.	Matanzas.	New York.	Lost boat sails, &c.
do.	do.	Off Cape Hatteras.	" Albion (Br.).	Porterell.	Cardenas.	New York.	Lost boat and cutter.
do.	do.	(Heavy weather all the voy.)	Schr. Lath Rich.	Nickerson.	Mayaguez.	New York.	Store boats, &c.
do.	do.	Lat. 35° 10' lon. 74°.	" War Eagle.	Hodgson.	Kingston, Ja.	New York.	Started deck head, &c.
do.	do.	Off Frying-Pan Shoals.	" Aldebaran.	Hamy.	Charleston.	New York.	Lost deck head, boom, &c.
do.	do.	About Lat. 49° lon. 11°.	Schr. James Lopez.	Brig Onward (Br.).	New York.	Rotterdam.	Lost topmast and boom.
do.	do.	Off Cape Hatteras.	Schr. Pearl.	Higgins.	Fonce, F. L.	New York.	Ar. at Dungeness.
do.	do.	Off St. Helena.	" A. L. Finnell.	Frank.	Baltimore.	Savannah.	Lost spars, sails, &c.
do.	do.	Lat. 36° 10' lon. 68° 30'.	" Truro (Br.).	Cardin.	New York.	Valencia.	Lost one man.
do.	do.	Lat. 41° 14' lon. 65° 17'.	Schr. North Star.	Jones.	Aspinwall.	New York.	Put into Bermuda.
do.	do.	About Del. capes and Barnegat.	Schr. S. & H. Gould.	Smith.	Medina.	New York.	Barometer 29.30.
do.	do.	Lat. 23° lon. 75° 02'.	" Harriet.	Young.	Cardenas.	New York.	Storm house, filled cabin, &c.
do.	do.	Lat. 35° 57' lon. 71° 02'.	" N. Berry.	Williams.	Bucksport.	Havana.	Lost deck head, &c.
do.	do.	Lat. 50° S. lon. 73° 20' W.	Ship Eagle Wing.	Colby.	New York.	San Francisco.	Put into New York.
do.	do.	Lat. 40° lon. 60°.	" Peppercell.	Hill.	City Point.	Bremen.	N.W. gale off S. F., Feb. 8.

* Has been noted for the gales of the 9th and 15th. Nearly every arrival from Europe has reported heavy westerly gales. The arrivals from West Indies and other southern ports report heavy northerly gales. A number of vessels have been abandoned about the 15th to the 20th. The month has been remarkable for the number of disasters to schooners and coasting vessels, as well as W. India traders. The gale of the 9th caused much damage on the coast, and in harbors from New York eastward.

DATE	DESCRIPTION.	DIRECTION.	DATE OF OCCURRENCE	LOCATION, LAT. AND LONG., &c.	BY WHAT VESSEL REPORTED.	MASTER.	WHERE FROM.	WHERE TO.	REMARKS.
19	Heavy Gale,	N.E.	March 14,	Lat. 37° (N.W. 1/2 Sec. fr. lat. 26°)	Ship Sword-Fish.	Crandall	Shanghai,	New York,	Light winds to Lat. 39°.
19	do. do.	N.N.E.	March 15,	10 miles S. Sandy Hook.	Brig Princess Royal (Br)	Newbold,	Bermuda,	New York,	Driven S. to Lat. 38° 41'.
19	do. do.	N.N.E.	Feb. 24,	Lat. 39° 09' lon. 71° 20'	Brig Bonaparte,	Young,	Boston,	Savannah,	Put into New York.
21	do. do.	N.E.	March 15,	Off Sandy Hook.	Ship Emerald,	Cook,	Liverpool,	New York,	W. gale, whole passage.
21	do. do.	N.E.	March 9,	Lat. 39° 12' lon. 65° 03'	Brig Chatham,	Simpson,	Malta,	Boston,	Off Chatham 18, S.E. to N.W. 1/2
21	Hurricane,	N.E.	3 days out from Boston.	Str. Young Rover,	Humphrey,	Roseton,	Leghorn,	Lat. 39° to three days.
22	Heavy Gale,	S.E. to S.	March 9,	Lat. 38° 20' lon. 71° 42'	Sch. James M. Holmes,	Lewis,	Sagua,	New York,	N.E. gale, 20 m. S.E. Abs. 16th.
22	do. do.	S.E. to N.W.	March 9,	Off Capes of Chesapeake,	Brig Clifton,	Brewster,	Palermo,	Baltimore,	On soundings since 10th inst.
23	do. do.	S.E. to N.W.	March 15,	Off Bermuda and New York,	Brig Nabob,	Lewis,	Focetow,	New York,	Double reefed last six days.
23	do. do.	N.W. to S.W.	March 16,	Lat. 35° 29' lon. 73° 10'	Sch. J. L. Darling,	Ferival,	Rio Grande,	New York,	Ex. S.E., N.W., & N.E. gales.
23	do. do.	N.W. to N.W.	March 16,	Lat. 37° 44' lon. 60° 27'	Sch. Dundalk (Br.),	Kiernan,	Kingston, Ire.	New York,	W. gales the whole passage.
25	do. do.	N.E.	March 15,	Off Capes Delaware,	Sch. Danville,	Chesler,	Richmond,	New York,	Louis Jamesens lost overb'd.
25	Hurricane,	S.W.	March 15,	In North Atlantic,	Ship Wild Pigeon,	Mayhew,	Talcahuano,	New York,	N.W. gales since 16th inst.
25	do. do.	N.N.E. to N.N.W.	March 22,	Lat. 38° lon. 73°	Brig Acme,	Campbell,	Vera Cruz,	New York,	Heavy N. & E. gales on voy.
25	do. do.	Various,	March 16,	Off Hatteras,	Sch. Mary E. Pierce,	Smith,	Cardenas,	New York,	Stove 63 bhd. molass. on deck.
25	do. do.	N.W.	March 9,	Lat. 32° 58' lon. 72° 15'	Brig Louisa (Fr.),	Ducasse,	Charleston,	Senegal,	Put back to Charleston.
26	Hurricane,	N.N.E.	Feb. 15,	Lat. 41° lon. 80°	Ship Wallace,	Lane,	Liverpool,	New York,	Started Outwater, &c.
26	do. do.	N.W.	March 15,	Lat. 36° lon. 74° 15'	Ship Far West,	Page,	New Orleans,	New York,	Barometer 28.78.
26	Hurricane,	N.W. to N.E.	March 16,	In North Atlantic,	Brig Henry Shelton,	Ajello,	Palermo,	New York,	Heavy westerly gales.
26	do. do.	Not reported,	March 15,	Off Cape Hatteras,	" Louisa,	Benton,	Sagua,	New York,	Heavy N. W. gales (Bar. 28.28)
26	do. do.	N.E.	March 15,	Lat. 33° 25' lon. 73° 22'	Sch. J. L. Bowman,	Ray,	Fajardo, P. R.,	New York,	Lost boat, &c.
27	Heavy Gale,	N.N.E.	March 15,	In Gulf Stream,	" Potomac,	Scorsom,	Palermo,	New York,	Abandoned, March 20.
27	Hurricane,	N.W.	March 15,	Lat. 33° lon. 74° 50'	Brig Resolution (Ital.),	Chase,	Sagua,	New York,	Lost spars, sails, &c.
27	do. do.	N.W.	March 21,	Lat. 36° 30' lon. 70°	" E. A. Chase,	Milliken,	Cardenas,	New York,	Jett. 1700 boxes fruit.
27	do. do.	N.W.	March 21,	Lat. 38° 48' lon. 73° 30'	Brig John Stevens,	Peckard,	Cardenas,	New York,	Gale lasted 66 hours.
27	do. do.	N.E.	March 19,	Lat. 40° lon. 69°	Sch. Georgia,	JS Leighton,	Virginia,	Thomaston,	Put in New York in distress.
28	do. do.	N.W.	March 20-26,	From Lat. 32° to New York,	Brig Derby (Br.),	Hutchinson,	Caldera,	Boston,	Crossed Equator March 3.
28	Hurricane,	N.N.E.	March 21,	Lat. 44° 20' E. of Banks,	Ship Dorsey,	Norton,	San Francisco,	New York,	Took off crew of brig Zillah.
28	do. do.	N.N.E. to N.N.W.	March 15,	Lat. 37° 48' lon. 74° 10'	Brig John R. Dow,	Colby,	Antwerp,	New York,	Abandoned March 15.
29	do. do.	N.N.W.	Mar. 15 to 12,	Lat. 38° 20' lon. 73° 30'	Sch. Potomac,	Ray,	Wilmington,	Providence,	Abandoned March 20.
29	do. do.	N.N.W.	Mar. 21 to 23,	Off Cape Hatteras,	Brig Isadora,	Head,	St. Johns, P. R.,	Boston,	15 days from P. R.
29	do. do.	Not reported,	March 22,	100 miles S. E. of Hatteras,	Sch. Jno.	Emmors,	Wilmington, N.C.	New York,	Lost deck lead, leaky, &c.
29	do. do.	N.N.E.	March 15,	Not reported,	" Wm. Queen,	Newman,	New Orleans,	New York,	Lost deck lead, sails, &c.
29	do. do.	N.N.E.	March 15,	Lat. 35° 18' lon. 75° 24'	" M. E. Carliale,	Stratton,	Cardenas,	Providence,	Lost deck lead, boat, &c.
29	do. do.	N.E.	March 15,	Lat. 38° lon. 74° 30'	" M. E. Carliale,	Barber,	Providence,	Providence,	Lost spars, sails, boat, &c.
29	do. do.	N.E.	March 15,	Lat. 34° lon. 74° 30'	" Esquilin,	Elliot,	Arro, Olean,	Charleston,	17th street by light's Bar. 29.
29	do. do.	N.E.	March 11,	Not reported,	Ship Danube,	Dixey,	New Orleans,	Boston,	Put in N.Y. in dist. Mar. 29.
30	Hurricane,	S.E.	March 14,	Lat. 37° 20' lon. 68°	" Danube,	Dixey,	New Orleans,	Liverpool,	Lost rudder, leaky, &c.
30	do. do.	N.W.	March 14,	Off Bermuda,	Brig Fannie Butler,	Bartlett,	Naples,	New York,	Ar. at Charleston, March 31.
30	Heavy Gale,	N.W.	March 22, 23,	Lat. 30° 30' lon. 73° 30'	Sch. Frederic Dyer,	Gilmore,	Dublin,	Charleston,	Had W. gales to Gibraltar.
30	do. do.	N.E. to N.W.	March 15,	Lat. 39° 30' lon. 74° 20'	Brig Charles Smith,	Gilbert,	New York,	Charleston,	Stove casks, filled cabin, &c.

LOSS OF LIFE AT SEA.

RECORD OF LIVES LOST AT SEA AND AT WRECKS, REPORTED DURING MARCH, 1861.

* * The First Column refers to the Date of the New York Paper containing the Report

DATE OF REPORT.	NO. OF PERSONS	NAMES, ETC.	BY WHAT VESSEL.	MASTER.	LOCATION OF LOSS.	DATE OF LOSS.	WHERE FROM.	WHERE BOUND.
1	11	Men, Woman, Crew of	Bark Tonquin,	Beckelder,	Off Wicklow Head,	February 9,	Glasgow,	Santa.
2	1	E. Gunderson,	Ship Maseonomo,	Geo. B. Bwasey,	Missing since	November 26,	New York,	London.
4	4	Crew of	Ship Fenslon,	Holtins,	Lost overboard,	February 16,	Leighorn,	New York.
6	9	Crew of	Brig Macassar, (Br.)	Whipple,	Missing since	November 8,	London,	Boston.
11	1	John Ryd,	Brig John Wesley,	Smith,	Lost over, Lat. 38° 30', Lon. 71° 24',	January 20,	New York,	Liverpool.
11	1	James Lewis,	Brig Mislounary, (Br.)	Neal,	Lost over, Lat. 28° 34', Lon. 40° 38',	February 1,	Sunderland,	New York.
11	1	James Walsh,	Ship Columbia,	Bryant,	Lost overboard,	February 1,	Liverpool,	New York.
11	1	Men,	Ship Ceres,	Humphreys,	(No particulars.)	February 1,	New Orleans,	Fleetwood.
12	1	Henry Granger,	Brig Regina, (Br.)	Skellon,	Lost over, Lat. 34°, Lon. 71°,	February 16,	Falmouth,	New York.
16	1	John R. Sommers,	Ship West Point,	Child,	Lost overboard,	March 10,	Liverpool,	New York.
16	1	Isaac Holt,	Schr. Pearl,	Lank,	Lost overboard off St. Helena.	March 9,	Baltimore,	Savannah.
18	1	Joseph Bond,	Schr. Truro, (Br.)	Cartlin,	Lost over, Lat. 41° 0', Lon. 66° 54',	March 10,	Hallifax,	New York.
19	1	John Corden,	Ship Samuel C. Grant,	Hinckley,	Wrecked near Scituate,	February 11,	Liverpool,	New York.
19	1	Crew of	Schr. Rialto,	Colbath,	Missing since	March 16,	Maslin,	Boston.
19	8	Crew of	Schr. Susan Young,	Anth. Medeiros,	Wrecked since	February 4,	Gloucester,	Fishing.
19	8	Crew of	Schr. H. N. Stanwood,	Pat. Gorman,	Missing since	February 6,	Gloucester,	Fishing.
19	8	Crew of	Schr. White Swallow,	Peter Nelson,	Wrecked near Scituate,	February 6,	Gloucester,	Fishing.
20	6	Crew of	Bark Harvest Queen,	Wheeler,	Lost overboard,	March 10,	Buenos Ayres,	Boston.
23	1	Capt. Milliken,	Ship London,	Hurlbut,	Wrecked near Scituate,	March 4,	London,	New York.
23	1	William Oglar,	Schr. Sarah Jane,	Milliken,	Wrecked on Isle of Shoals,	March 18,	Rockland,	Boston.
23	1	Seaman,	Schr. Sarah Jane,	Milliken,	Wrecked near Glara, Cuba,	March 18,	Rockland,	Boston.
25	1	Seaman,	Schr. Cactus,	N. M. Russel,	Wrecked near Glara, Cuba,	March 6,	Brazos,	New York.
25	1	Capt. Walter H. Hines,	Schr. Belle Brandon,	W. H. Hines,	Lost overboard off Machus Island,	March 21,	New York,	Calais.
25	8	Crew of	Schr. Susan Baker,	Gookin,	Wrecked near Scituate,	March 22,	Elizabethport,	Sao.
25	4	Crew of	Ship A. B. Thompson,	Small,	Lost from boat near Antwerp,	March 8,	OF Antwerp,
26	1	Seaman,	Ship Danube,	Healy,	Lost from boat near Barmouth,	March 6,	New Orleans,	Liverpool.
26	1	Mate,	Schr. Wm. Mason,	Staples,	Lost by collision and sinking of schr.,	March 12,	Gloucester,	Baltimore.
27	1	Edward Martin,	Schr. Queen of the Fleet, (Br.)	Hilton,	Lost overboard,	March 15,	Gloucester,	New York.
27	1	Joseph King,	Bark Glenfegosa,	Cola,	Lost overboard while lying to,	March 15,	Gloucester,	New York.
27	1	Capt. J. S. Leighton,	Bark Parraes, (Br.)	J. S. Leighton,	Lost over, Lat. 40° Lon. 69°	March 22,	Calais,	Boston.
28	1	Edmond Jackson,	Ship Sir J. Franklin,	Despeaux,	Lost over, Lat. 33° 35' Lon. 31°	February 23,	Liverpool,	Baltimore.
28	1	Henry Peacock,	Ship Sir J. Franklin,	Despeaux,	Lost over, Lat. 33° 35' Lon. 31°	February 23,	Liverpool,	Baltimore.
30	1	George King,	Ship Devonshire,	Anderson,	Lost overboard,	March 20,	London,	New York.
30	1	Malcolm Menda,	Ship Francis B. Cutting,	Maloney,	Fell from aloft,	March 21,	Havre,	New York.
31	1	Jefferson Peirce,	Ship Laumerger,	Coffin,	Fell from aloft,	February 8,	Callao,	New York.

FOREIGN COMMERCE OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

FROM OCTOBER 1, 1820, TO JULY, 1, 1860.

YEARS ENDING SEPT. 30.	EXPORTS.			IMPORTS.	TONNAGE CL'D.	
	DOMESTIC	FOREIGN.	TOTAL.	TOTAL.	AMERICAN.	FOREIGN.
1821	\$7,596,605	\$5,964,818	\$13,560,918	\$23,629,246	153,174	10,720
1822	10,987,167	6,118,815	17,100,482	23,445,623	185,666	17,784
1823	11,343,995	7,675,995	19,038,990	29,491,349	192,321	23,553
1824	15,523,654	9,863,490	22,897,134	34,113,723	222,371	15,143
1825	20,631,533	14,607,703	35,239,231	49,689,174	235,573	19,351
1826	11,494,719	10,451,073	21,947,791	38,115,680	214,664	21,365
1827	18,930,637	9,913,510	23,884,137	33,719,644	239,963	33,375
1828	19,362,015	10,415,624	22,777,649	41,927,792	217,118	42,373
1829	12,066,561	8,082,450	20,119,011	34,745,807	219,674	32,835
1830	18,618,373	6,079,705	19,697,963	35,624,070	229,341	36,574
Total,	\$127,961,179	87,972,177	215,933,356	369,379,563	2,135,370	256,593
1831	15,736,118	9,909,026	25,535,144	57,077,417	254,331	72,444
1832	15,057,350	10,943,695	26,000,945	53,214,402	242,749	101,967
1833	15,411,296	9,933,821	25,395,117	55,918,449	334,175	133,566
1834	13,949,469	11,662,545	25,512,014	73,188,594	361,606	238,650
1835	21,707,867	8,637,397	30,345,264	88,191,305	589,555	343,073
1836	19,816,520	9,104,118	28,920,638	113,253,416	477,524	335,591
1837	16,033,969	11,254,450	27,338,419	79,301,723	433,008	404,754
1838	16,432,433	6,576,083	23,008,471	68,453,306	515,739	323,763
1839	23,296,935	9,971,104	33,268,099	99,832,433	569,736	330,666
1840	22,676,609	11,537,471	34,264,080	60,440,750	513,202	343,114
Total,	\$180,053,526	99,529,665	279,583,191	753,921,609	4,346,975	2,672,623
1841	24,279,608	8,860,225	33,139,833	75,713,425	600,307	365,241
1842	20,739,286	6,837,493	27,576,773	57,375,604	556,989	340,520
1843	18,443,234	3,319,430	16,762,664	31,356,540	331,231	174,374
1844	26,009,177	6,852,363	32,861,540	65,079,516	973,313	414,625
1845	25,929,904	10,245,394	36,175,293	70,909,085	926,230	414,688
1846	29,585,866	7,349,547	36,935,413	74,254,333	1,130,944	425,942
1847	44,816,480	5,027,833	49,344,363	84,167,352	1,040,340	438,755
1848	38,771,301	14,579,943	53,351,157	94,525,141	1,004,316	705,373
1849	36,738,215	9,224,385	45,968,100	92,567,369	1,359,643	734,514
1850	41,502,300	11,309,959	52,712,789	111,123,524	1,411,557	737,539
Total,	\$301,315,779	66,507,156	367,822,935	757,571,840	9,379,470	4,551,571
1851	63,104,543	17,902,477	81,007,019	141,546,533	1,533,313	873,319
1852	74,042,531	13,441,375	87,483,906	132,329,306	1,570,927	906,793
1853	66,080,355	12,175,935	78,256,290	173,270,999	1,959,903	1,034,742
1854	105,551,740	16,932,906	122,534,646	195,427,933	1,913,317	1,035,154
1855	96,414,808	17,816,430	113,731,233	164,776,511	1,861,632	1,140,197
1856	109,343,509	9,362,991	119,111,500	210,162,454	2,136,577	1,335,577
1857	119,197,301	15,605,997	134,803,293	236,493,435	2,133,670	1,405,311
1858	89,039,790	19,301,134	108,340,924	173,476,736	2,152,335	1,132,563
1859	104,726,546	12,313,279	117,539,825	229,151,349	2,554,134	1,376,706
1860	126,060,967	19,494,432	145,555,449	243,439,377	3,333,333	1,190,750
Total,	\$959,017,139	154,297,506	1,113,314,645	1,915,154,188	21,315,192	11,436,517

* 9 months to June 30, and the fiscal year from this time begins July 1.

RECAPITULATION OF FOREIGN COMMERCE OF NEW YORK AND THE U. S. FOR FIVE YEARS.

YEAR.	IMPORTS STATE OF N. Y.	OTHER STATES.	TOTAL, UNITED STATES.	PER CENT.
1855-1856	\$210,160,454	\$104,479,463	\$314,639,923	66.79
1856-1857	236,493,435	124,396,656	360,890,141	65.53
1857-1858	178,475,396	104,137,414	282,612,180	63.15
1858-1859	229,131,249	109,536,781	338,763,130	67.65
1859-1860	243,439,377	113,676,377	362,166,254	63.61
Five years	\$1,102,800,901	556,276,696	1,659,077,597	
Average five years	\$220,560,180	111,255,339	331,315,519	66.40
YEAR.	EXPORTS STATE OF N. Y.	OTHER STATES.	TOTAL, UNITED STATES.	PER CENT.
1855-1856	\$119,111,500	\$307,853,403	\$326,964,903	36.43
1856-1857	134,503,293	233,157,334	367,660,623	37.14
1857-1858	108,340,924	216,303,496	324,644,420	33.57
1858-1859	117,539,825	239,249,637	356,789,463	32.94
1859-1860	145,555,449	254,566,347	400,122,296	36.33
Five years	\$625,350,996	1,246,130,772	1,771,481,768	
Average five years	\$125,070,199	249,226,154	374,296,353	33.26

Statement showing the comparative losses on Ships and Freights and on Cargoes, during the year 1860.

I. LOSSES ON SHIPS AND FREIGHTS.

MONTHS.	Ships.	Steamers.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Total.
Jan.,...	\$ 677,000 ..	\$ 26,500 ..	\$ 319,200 ..	\$ 95,000 ..	\$ 60,600 ..	\$ 1,178,300
Feb.,..	571,500 ..	306,000 ..	272,000 ..	47,000 ..	98,500 ..	1,295,000
March..	552,000 ..	524,000 ..	253,500 ..	105,250 ..	102,700 ..	1,537,450
April, .	379,000 ..	110,000 ..	161,000 ..	57,500 ..	75,600 ..	783,100
May,...	640,500 ..	70,500 ..	105,500 ..	52,500 ..	77,300 ..	946,300
June,...	288,000 ..	144,000 ..	98,700 ..	57,000 ..	25,600 ..	613,300
July,...	225,000 ..	306,000 ..	129,200 ..	38,100 ..	50,900 ..	749,200
Aug.,...	200,000 ..	70,000 ..	133,000 ..	50,600 ..	40,300 ..	493,900
Sept.,...	553,000 ..	240,000 ..	58,100 ..	54,500 ..	71,000 ..	976,600
Oct.,...	666,000 ..	750,000 ..	199,000 ..	71,600 ..	72,400 ..	1,759,000
Nov.,...	536,000 ..	836,500 ..	190,500 ..	50,500 ..	186,600 ..	1,800,100
Dec.,...	590,000 ..	330,000 ..	110,250 ..	62,200 ..	100,300 ..	1,192,750
Total, ..	\$ 5,878,000	\$ 3,713,500	\$ 2,029,950	\$ 741,750	\$ 961,800	\$ 13,325,000

II. LOSSES ON CARGOES.

Jan.,...	\$ 545,800 ..	\$ 38,000 ..	\$ 867,500 ..	\$ 126,000 ..	\$ 73,600 ..	\$ 1,650,900
Feb.,...	420,000 ..	342,300 ..	264,500 ..	11,600 ..	75,600 ..	1,114,000
March,.	492,000 ..	696,000 ..	386,000 ..	186,100 ..	134,400 ..	1,894,500
April,.	720,000 ..	242,000 ..	376,600 ..	66,400 ..	75,700 ..	1,480,700
May,...	972,200 ..	61,000 ..	71,000 ..	56,200 ..	83,100 ..	1,243,500
June,...	542,000 ..	19,000 ..	158,500 ..	43,500 ..	96,000 ..	859,000
July,...	241,000 ..	1,013,000 ..	292,000 ..	105,000 ..	11,000 ..	1,662,000
Aug.,...	91,000 ..	15,000 ..	160,000 ..	147,000 ..	49,400 ..	462,400
Sept.,..	665,500 ..	140,000 ..	55,000 ..	66,000 ..	33,100 ..	959,600
Oct.,...	687,000 ..	150,000 ..	113,000 ..	35,000 ..	28,000 ..	1,013,000
Nov.,...	525,000 ..	613,000 ..	187,500 ..	27,900 ..	63,500 ..	1,416,900
Dec.,...	1,076,500 ..	50,000 ..	76,300 ..	24,900 ..	72,800 ..	1,300,500
Cargoes, ..	\$ 6,978,000	\$ 3,379,300	\$ 3,007,900	\$ 895,600	\$ 796,200	\$ 15,057,000
Vessels, ..	5,878,000	3,713,500	2,029,950	741,750	961,800	13,325,000
	\$ 12,856,000	\$ 7,092,800	\$ 5,037,850	\$ 1,637,350	\$ 1,758,000	\$ 28,382,000

1861.

Jan.,...	\$ 1,906,000 ..	\$ 309,000 ..	\$ 419,500 ..	\$ 146,600 ..	\$ 150,000 ..	\$ 2,931,100
Feb.,..	1,137,500 ..	427,200 ..	472,500 ..	148,800 ..	217,700 ..	2,403,700
March,.	1,152,800 ..	169,500 ..	528,200 ..	350,300 ..	505,800 ..	2,706,600

2 mos., 1861.						
Total, ..	\$ 4,196,300	\$ 905,700	\$ 1,420,200	\$ 645,700	\$ 873,500	\$ 8,041,400

2 mos., 1860.						
Total, ..	3,258,300	1,932,800	2,362,700	570,950	545,400	8,670,150

1859.

Cargoes, ..	\$ 9,904,160	\$ 5,939,500	\$ 2,438,100	\$ 1,312,800	\$ 958,860	\$ 20,553,420
Vessels, ..	7,252,252	5,322,000	2,097,800	950,400	1,080,300	16,702,752

Year 1859.						
Total, ..	\$ 17,156,412	\$ 11,261,500	\$ 4,535,900	\$ 2,263,200	\$ 2,039,160	\$ 37,256,172

THE PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY OF THE SEA AND ITS METEOROLOGY.

COMMANDER MAURY has long been known by the practical, useful and comprehensive character of his nautical compilations and original writings. Assiduously laboring for many years, aided by scientific professors as well as by experienced practical men, he has done ample justice to the confidence and liberality of the United States. Successive editions of his *Sailing Directions* and *Charts*, in number many thousands, have been widely and well distributed, gratuitously, among those who are responsible for life at sea—whose business is on the ocean. We were informed, at a meeting of the Royal Geographical Society, that more than seven hundred quarto volumes and four thousand large charts have been thus dispersed among sea captains and instructors in maritime affairs, besides others in Great Britain and Ireland; while a proportionate number has been distributed in Holland, France, Portugal, Spain and Italy, above and beyond the much larger supply similarly granted to every United States ship of war, and to every merchantman willing to coöperate in observing.

Not only has a great amount of available knowledge been thus circulated directly, but a spirit of observation, a habit of noting and comparing, has increased most advantageously during late years among officers at sea—indirectly consequent on the acquisition of such knowledge as it has been the object of Commander MAURY, as it was likewise of our own Admiral BEAUFORT, to collect, digest and diffuse. We refer especially to our late Admiralty Hydrographer, by whose sagacity, talent and perseverance all maritime nations have benefited very generally.

After thus rendering special service to the maritime world, the various publications that have issued from the National Observatory at Washington have been submitted, by its indefatigable superintendent, to a process of elaborate selection and condensation, out of which, with much new matter, has resulted the present well-printed, clearly-arranged and most interesting, as well as useful, octavo volume. A careful perusal has shown us the necessity of noticing a few weak points—for some such, of course, there are—lest inexperienced persons should be led into occasional difficulties, even by so admirable a general guide.

That a work essentially maritime should be heralded with the word "Geography" has occasioned doubt—a feeling which has soon yielded, however, to the reflections that the term includes all the world's surface, the greater part of which is covered by sea—and that it has the sanction of HUMBOLDT and HERSCHEL. In the almost overwhelming aggregation of ideas suggested by even a superficial glance through the table of contents, it is hard to eliminate the most striking, and to comment on those alone, briefly, without digressing into a string of essays. In truth, it is a text-book for many a long discourse.

In the first chapter are explanations and illustrations of oceanic and atmospheric phenomena, as pleasant to read as worthy of their writers—one being the lamented Dr. BUIST. But in treating of the tides, some reference to the later researches and views of WHEWELL and HERSCHEL is desirable. A perusal of the article, "Physical Geography," in the

present edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, and reference to the consecutive essays on the tides, which have been so luminous to seamen, show that those authorities are indisposed to attribute tidal results in northern seas to the sole or principal effect of a great tide-wave generated in the expanse of the southern ocean. They advert to a westerly and returning movement in mass, depending on depth and width of water, the attractions of moon and sun, and the obstacles opposing a continuous westerly wave. Such an undulation was described long ago by HERSCHEL as "exceedingly broad and excessively flat." It has the least sensible effect near the middle of the ocean; but is evidenced by the impulse given near a shelving shore, or an estuary where the sea has a positive current, and, therefore, a momentum, additional to the merely local, and (unless opposed and broken) vertically circuitous motion of a pure undulation or wave of water.

Horizontal or lateral movements, occasioned by obstructions of continents, islands or shallows, to great tidal waves, may have far more effect, geologically and on climates, than has hitherto been noticed. There is an impulse in one direction, towards the west, after the attracting bodies—moon and sun—greater than the returning or equilibrating action towards the east; and this, continued incessantly, must cause a preponderance of oceanic movement westward. Do we not see the results in comparative heaping or forcing of water into the Gulf of Mexico, towards the Indian Archipelago and the east coast of Africa? And are there not currents setting from those regions northward or southward, if not both, and eastward again where impeded and circumscribed—such as the Gulf Stream, the Japanese current, the South Pacific, South Atlantic and Languhas currents? These currents, originated by consecutive tidal impulses, are doubtless strengthened and promoted by prevalent winds, especially the perennial and the monsoons.

The depths of ocean, their conditions and their temperatures become more and more subjects of interest as we gradually approximate towards accurate knowledge of them, and as our requirements oblige us to investigate their mysteries. Commander MAURY's pages on these recondite secrets are full of valuable ideas.

He had the satisfaction (during his too brief visit to London, a few days ago) of meeting those who had just brought living creatures from more than seven thousand feet below the sea, and of inspecting an ingenious device for ascertaining temperature at any depth, irrespective of pressure or condensation. It is on the principle of a metallic barometer, so far as having *plates* of metal that expand or contract according to temperature, their ends working a lever which ranges through a graduated arc, carrying, either way, passive indexes by which extreme temperatures are shown on similar arcs. The water has free access through this new apparatus. Excellent advice and sound opinions are given by our author respecting electric wires and their coverings. But he ascribes the perishing of their absurd iron armature to galvanic action alone, namely, that caused by sea-water, with the iron and copper of the wires. In many, if not in most instances, there is a rapid oxidation of the iron, wherever covered by water only, and not excluded by mud, or otherwise, from air, *in the water*, in addition to direct and destructive action of copper ore, or veins, cropping out at the bottom of the sea near land. Instances are on record of chain cables ruined, in a few weeks only, by overlying a rocky

patch of copper ore. Where a metallic defence against chafing is indispensable, as over rocks, in shallow water, copper only should be used.

The officer recently employed by France to examine and report on submarine telegraphy in general, has stated to his government that the best insulator is caoutchouc, and that a wire of large section is better than smaller wires. Experiments are in favor of india-rubber, as now applied, certainly; but is it probable that any vegetable substance will last long under water—especially sea-water—abounding in animal life and a variety of material ingredients? Some combination of vitreous, although rather ductile and flexible character, insulating and durable, may yet be devised by chemists and electricians.

Trials, only just concluded, with wires varying in their sectional area, have occasioned a hasty conclusion against other evidence of a different nature, that the "conductivity" of a small wire equals that of one larger in section.

In these experiments, while the smallest wire could transmit the charge without special impediment, it would go as fast and as far as in a wire of indefinitely large sectional area; but if the small wire were overcharged, or heated, to a degree diminishing "conductivity" while much increasing retardation, or what the French term "condensation," then a sensible difference would be discovered immediately. A man may walk along a narrow way as fast and as far as along a wide road, while he is not jostled, impeded or inconveniently squeezed. When lightning—the electric current from Nature's battery in the atmosphere—strikes the spindle of a HARRIS conductor fixed in a lofty mast, it is always carried down to the sea, not only without damaging any thing, (unless, perhaps, melting a few inches of the small spindle point,) but without displacing a particle of covering paint, or leaving a trace of its progress. Could this be so if the mysterious agent did not traverse the solid—and more readily—with less heat, and therefore without fusion, when finding ample metallic pathway?

To go further into this question—to show the fallacy of very prevalent ideas about "*circuits*," and to give a simple view of inductive action accordant with Prof. FARADAY'S latest discoveries and investigations, would be misplaced here, however enticing. Indeed, it would be as futile as presumptuous to offer immature opinions, in addition to the few well-ascertained facts.

In the second chapter a lance is aimed at the proof armor of a most redoubtable champion of philosophy and science. To understand the controversy, more than the following extracts should be read, especially arguments urged in support of an idea that comparative density, saltiness and evaporation (their chief cause) are the principal, if not the only originators of oceanic currents on a great scale. Commander MAURY says:

"With the view of ascertaining the average number of days during the year that the N. E. trade-winds of the Atlantic operate upon the currents between 25° N. and the equator, log-books containing no less than 380,284 observations on the force and direction of the wind in that ocean were examined. The data thus afforded were carefully compared and discussed. The results show that within those latitudes, and on the average, the wind from the N. E. quadrant is in excess of the winds from the S. W. only 111 days out of the 365. During the rest of the year the S. W. counteract the effect of the N. E. winds upon the currents. Now, can

the N. E. trades, by blowing for less than one-third of the time, cause the Gulf Stream to run all the time, and without varying its velocity either to their force or their prevalence? Sir JOHN HERSCHEL maintains that they can; that the trade-winds are the *sole cause* of the Gulf Stream; not, indeed, by causing 'a head of water' in the West Indian seas, but by rolling particles of water before them, somewhat as billiard balls are rolled over the table. He denies to evaporation, temperature, salts and sea-shells any effective influence whatever upon the circulation of the waters in the ocean. According to him, the winds are the supreme current-producing power in the sea. This theory would require all the currents of the sea to set with the winds, or, when deflected, to be deflected from the shore, as billiard balls are from the cushions of the table, making the littoral angles of incidence and reflection equal. Now, so far from this being the case, *not ONE* of the *constant* currents of the sea either makes such a rebound or sets with the winds. The Gulf Stream sets as it comes out of the Gulf of Mexico, and for hundreds of miles after it enters the Atlantic, against the trade-winds; for a part of the way it runs right in the 'wind's eye.' The Japan current, 'the Gulf Stream of the Pacific,' does the same. The Mozambique current runs to the south, against the S. E. trade-winds, and it changes not with the monsoons. The ice-bearing currents of the north oppose the winds in their course. HUMBOLDT's current has its genesis in the ex-tropical regions of the south, where the 'brave west winds' blow with almost, if not with quite the regularity of the trades, but with double their force. And this current, instead of setting to the S. E. before these winds, flows north in spite of them. These are the main and constant currents of the sea—the great arteries and jugulars through which its circulation is conducted. In every instance, and regardless of winds, those currents that are warm flow towards the poles, those that are cold set towards the equator. And this they do, not by the force of the winds, but in spite of them, and by the force of those very agencies that make the winds to blow. They flow thus by virtue of those efforts which the sea is continually making to restore that equilibrium to its waters which heat and cold, the forces of evaporation and the secretion of its inhabitants, are everlastingly destroying. If the winds makes the *upper*, what makes the *under* and counter currents? This question is of itself enough to impeach that supremacy of the winds upon the currents, which the renowned philosopher, with whom I am so unfortunate as to differ, travelled so far out of his way to vindicate. The 'bottles' also dispute, in their silent way, the 'supremacy of the winds' over the currents of the sea. The bottles that are thrown overboard to try currents are partly out of the water. The wind *has* influence upon them; yet of all those—and they are many—that have been thrown overboard in the trade-wind region of the North Atlantic, or in the Caribbean Sea, where the trade-winds blow, none have been found to drift *with* the wind; they all drift with the current, and nearly at right angles to the wind. That the winds do make currents in the sea no one will have the hardihood to deny; but currents that are born of the winds are as unstable as the winds; uncertain as to time, place and direction, they are sporadic and ephemeral."

Perhaps too much has been made of the very small differences between the specific gravity of the ocean in various regions. Assuming 1,000 parts (say grains) as the weight of one volume of pure distilled water, the

average weight of an equal volume, by measure, of ocean water, is 1,027 of such parts. Rarely, indeed, has it been found, at or near the surface, to exceed 1,030; but it diminishes at the surface first, after heavy rains, or within the influence of fresh-water rivers, (such as the Amazon, Orinoco, Mississippi, Congo, Ganges, Indus, Hoang-Ho, &c.,) and, in general, on soundings *near land*. It is very difficult to read the scale of a hydrometer accurately, when a ship has motion, and if very great care be not taken, an oily finger, or the adhesion of dust on so delicate a test instrument, may make a difference (as the late Mr. WELSH proved) of more than two divisions or parts of the scale, between 1,000 and 1,040.*

The chapters on climate and commerce, on the atmosphere, and on rains and rivers, are full to repletion of valuable remarks, the results of collecting in all directions before sifting and condensing. We could wish that more frequent reference had been made to authorities whose ideas, if not words, strike the mind in reading these well-filled pages. We have a reverential attachment to the works of early navigators, such as DAMPIER, COOK, LA PEROUSE and FLINDERS, and have been accustomed to prize the experience, inaccessible to many, we admit, of other seamen in this century. In quoting instances of excessive fall of rain, our excellent author has been misinformed on two material points, and has, of course, proportionally weakened the force of arguments based on those supposed facts. Speaking of the rain fall in Patagonia, he mentions nearly 150 inches in a year, quoting KING and FITZROY. On referring to "The Voyages of the Adventure and Beagle," we can find no such statement. No record of rain-fall was made by the Beagle's officers—only one by those of the Adventure, which was for two months only in Chiloe. The much lamented FOSTER, when in the Chanticleer, near Cape Horn, had a rain-gauge in St. Martin's Cove for rather more than a month of particularly bad weather, in the rainiest season. Between Western and Eastern Patagonia we presume there must be great differences of climate in the same latitude, owing to the lofty Andes on the west, and prevalent westerly winds which blow over or round their snowy summits. The other instance, which it seems necessary to notice, is the presumed fall of about 600 inches of rain in a year in India. Examination of Col. SYKES' statements has shown, that during heavy rain, of a very rainy season, about 300 inches of rain fell. But the rest of the year was dry in that country. Prof. OLDHAM's facts, however, support Commander MAURY's statement of 600 inches in one year.

At the opening of his chapter on red fogs and sea breezes we read:

"The inhabitants of the sea-shore in tropical countries wait every morning with impatience the coming of the sea breeze. It usually sets in about ten o'clock. Then the sultry heat of the oppressive morning is dissipated, and there is a delightful freshness in the air, which seems to give new life to all for their daily labors. About sunset there is again another calm. The sea breeze is now done, and in a short time the land breeze sets in. This alternation of the land and sea breeze—a wind from the sea by day and from the land by night—is so regular in inter-tropical

* To avoid recurrence to this point, it may *here* be observed that, in pages 216 and 222, the percentages stated by the author, as bases of his argument, are those of the *differences* between the specific gravities; not those of the respective whole numbers themselves. The addition of a figure has given an undue importance to the matter.

countries, that they are looked for by the people with as much confidence as the rising and setting of the sun. In extra-tropical countries, especially those on the polar side of the trade winds, this phenomenon is presented only in summer and fall, when the heat of the sun is sufficiently intense to produce the requisite degree of atmospherical rarefaction over the land. This depends in a measure, also, upon the character of the land upon which the sea breeze blows, for when the surface is arid and the soil barren, the heating power of the sun is exerted with most effect. In such cases the sea breeze amounts to a gale of wind. In the summer of the southern hemisphere the sea breeze is more powerfully developed at Valparaiso than at any other place to which my services afloat have led me. Here regularly in the afternoon, at this season, the sea breeze blows furiously; pebbles are torn up from the walks and whirled about the streets; people seek shelter; the Almendral is deserted, business interrupted, and all communication from the shipping to the shore is cut off. Suddenly the winds and the sea, as if they had again heard the voice of rebuke, are hushed, and there is a great calm. The lull that follows is delightful. The sky is without a cloud; the atmosphere is transparency itself; the Andes seem to draw near; the climate, always mild and soft, becomes now doubly sweet by the contrast. The evening invites abroad, and the population sally forth—the ladies, in ball costume, for now there is not wind enough to disarrange the lightest curl. In the southern summer this change takes place day after day with the utmost regularity, and yet the calm always seems to surprise, and to come before one has time to realize that the furious sea wind could so soon be hushed. Presently the stars begin to peep out, timidly at first, as if to see whether the elements here below had ceased their strife, and if the scene on earth be such as they, from their bright spheres aloft, may shed their sweet influences upon. Sirius, or that blazing world, Argus, may be the first watcher to send down a feeble ray; then follow another and another, all smiling meekly; but presently, in the short twilight of the latitude, the bright leaders of the starry host blaze forth in all their glory, and the sky is decked and spangled with superb brilliants. In the twinkling of an eye, and faster than the admiring gazer can tell, the stars seem to leap out from their hiding place. By invisible hands, and in quick succession, the constellations are hung out; but first of all, and with dazzling glory, in the azure depths of space, appears the great Southern Cross. That shining symbol lends a holy grandeur to the scene, making it still more impressive. Alone in the night-watch, after the sea breeze has sunk to rest, I have stood on the deck under those beautiful skies, gazing, admiring, rapt. I have seen there, above the horizon at once, and shining with a splendor unknown to these latitudes, every star of the first magnitude—save only six—that is contained in the catalogue of the 100 principal fixed stars of astronomers. There lies the city on the sea-shore, wrapped in sleep. The sky looks solid, like a vault of steel set with diamonds. The stillness below is in harmony with the silence above, and one almost fears to speak, lest the harsh sound of the human voice, reverberating through those 'vaulted chambers of the south,' should wake up echo, and drown the music that fills the soul. On looking aloft, the first emotion gives birth to a homeward thought: bright and lovely as they are, those, to northern sons, are not the stars nor the skies of fatherland. Alpha Lyrae, with his pure white light, has gone from the zenith, and only

appears for one short hour above the top of the northern hills. Polaris and the Great Bear have ceased to watch from their posts; they are away down below the horizon. But, glancing the eye above and around, you are dazzled with the splendors of the firmament. The moon and the planets stand out from it; they do not seem to touch the blue vault in which the stars are set. The Southern Cross is just about to culminate. Climbing up in the east are the Centaurs, Spica, Boötes and Antares, with his lovely little companion, which only the best telescopes have power to unveil. These are all bright particular stars, differing from one another in color as they do in glory. At the same time the western sky is glorious with its brilliants, too. Orion is there, just about to march down into the sea; but Canopus and Sirius, with Castor and his twin brother, and Procyon, γ Argus and Regulus—these are high up in their course; they look down with great splendor, smiling peacefully as they precede the Southern Cross on its western way. And yonder, farther still, away to the south, float the Magellanic clouds, and the 'Coal Sacks'—those mysterious, dark spots in the sky, which seem as though it had been rent, and these were holes in the 'azure robe of night,' looking out in the starless, empty, black abyss beyond. One who has never watched the southern sky in the stillness of the night, after the sea breeze, with its turmoil, is done, can have no idea of its grandeur, beauty and loveliness. Within the tropics, however, the land and sea breezes are more gentle, and, though the night scenes there are not so suggestive as those just described, yet they are exceedingly delightful and altogether lovely. The oppressive heat of the sun and the climate of the sea-shore is mitigated and made both refreshing and healthful by the alternation of those winds which invariably come from the coolest place—the sea, which is the cooler by day, and the land, which is the cooler by night. About ten in the morning the heat of the sun has played upon the land with sufficient intensity to raise its temperature above that of the water. A portion of this heat being imparted to the superincumbent air, causes it to rise, when the air, first from the beach, then from the sea, to the distance of several miles, begins to flow in with a most delightful and invigorating freshness."

EHRENBERG'S examination of the "sea-dust," which occasionally falls so thickly near the Cape Verde Islands, has induced a supposition that the trade-winds carry this dust *across* the inter-tropical zone, these winds ascending there and *crossing*. But this, as a general principle, is untenable; because one current of air, equal in volume and impetus to another opposing it, cannot pass on; it must turn or diverge. Dust carried up into the higher atmosphere is liable to be drifted hither and thither, regularly or irregularly, according to the current of air in which it may be suspended. Its course and ultimate place of deposit must be uncertain, like the progress of bottles in an ocean, which sometimes show a special line of drift, but more frequently are carried about variously by successive currents.

That the microscope can prove such infusoria to be South American, not African, and that the upper *returning* current, or the upper *onward* current of air from Brazil crosses the equatorial zone, and moves towards the northeast, are postulates hardly to be granted. Red fogs are well known to be frequent during the "Harmattan" of Western Africa—a dry, off-shore wind. The dust then obscuring sight is certainly African.

Within a thousand miles or so of a volcanic eruption dust occasionally falls from that source, and is carried in various directions many hundreds of miles, by co-existing, superposed, but totally different strata or currents of the atmosphere.

In treating of the trade-winds, HADLEY must not be eclipsed by even the celebrated HALLEY. To HADLEY, the inventor of our first reflecting instrument for use at sea, we also owe the first theory of the trade-winds, which has stood the test of time, and is now, one may say, endorsed by HERSCHEL and DOVE, in whose last admirable work (translated into English) HADLEY has his legitimate place.

In addition to great *general* causes or principles—partial consequences of evaporation and condensation, of effects occasioned by intervening continents, or even islands, and of rapid changes resulting from electrical action—demand attention; without attributing all these peculiarities to one *supposed* origin—namely, “magnetism”—itself only a concomitant phenomenon, Commander MAURY’s assertion, that the poles of the wind, of greatest cold and of magnetism, are so nearly coincident as to be within a few degrees of each other, in either hemisphere, is very striking.

In connection with the *Polynian* question, with the recorded Dutch voyages, in the seventeenth century, into open water, near the pole—with WEDDELL’S Antarctic high latitude in unfrozen ocean—the migration of reindeer from South Greenland towards the north as winter approaches, and the constant currents transporting large icebergs from polar regions, into which, therefore, other currents must flow, underneath or through other openings—in connection with these, (among many curious facts connected with Polar temperatures,) and the apparent vicinity of the magnetic, the cold and the wind poles, with their comparative distance or separation from the true poles of the earth’s axis, an extreme degree of interest must be felt generally.

Respecting the currents, the specific gravity and the salts of the sea, our author should be followed through his chapters, which are themselves summaries; scarcely free, however, from occasional repetitions. Prof. HUBBARD’S elaborate series of experiments at Washington Observatory, in 1858, seem to prove that although “fresh water attains its maximum density at 39° 5’ Fahrenheit, average sea water does not arrive at its maximum density until it passes its freezing point (27° 2’) and reaches the temperature of 25° 6’.” After describing how he made an appearance of “snowing upwards” in a glass vessel of water, the scientific experimenter says: “In some instances the water was brought down, in a confined vessel, to 18° before freezing; but as soon as freezing commenced, the thermometer mounted up to 28°. MELLONI has shown that the power of salt water to transmit heat is very much greater than that of fresh. The freezing point of strong brine is 4°; consequently, the freezing point of water in the sea may vary, according to the proportion of salts in it, from 4° all the way up to just below 32°.” May we not ask whether ready access of air, or the contrary, does not affect congelation?

Commander MAURY says that the surface-waters of the Red Sea “have been found as high in temperature as 95° Fahrenheit—a sea at blood heat!” Authentic evidence is on record of an occasional sea-surface temperature of 92° at the Philippine Islands, the Galapagos, on the coast of Mexico, and elsewhere; but generally between the tropics oceanic temperature

averages nearly the same as air immediately over it; namely, between 70° and 80° .

Very remarkable instances occur, in several parts of the world, of contiguous currents of the ocean, differing from ten to twenty degrees in temperature, considerably also in density and saltness, conspicuously, too, in color. From many barometrical observations, our author has inferred that the mercurial column stands considerably lower in Arctic and Antarctic regions than it does in inter-tropical latitudes, on an average, throughout the year. But this inference has been drawn from accumulated and collated observations of one season, not throughout the year—in summer and autumn only—not in winter and spring also! The barometer ranges as high in those regions as anywhere.

Sir L. M'CLINTOCK lately registered thirty-one inches. Canadian and Russian observations equal this height; and many Antarctic records show numerous instances of high barometer. But there is a fact which, unexplained duly, may have led to this fallacy. In the great Southern Ocean, between 40° and 60° south, there is no interruption to wind, in the zone of westerly winds, except the projection of South America, ending in Cape Horn. Hence a less impeded "anti-trade," a more regular flow, as it were, of the great combination of polar and tropical currents by the west, without the resistances so frequently caused by mountainous or other extensive territorial impediments in the northern hemisphere. Consequently, the vertical atmospherical pressure is comparatively less, on an average; and, as the prevailing wind is westerly, inclining from the tropical side of west, the barometer is (on account of the *direction* and moisture) usually lower than it averages elsewhere. But this is in summer and autumn. During the southern winter and spring, easterly storms or gales of wind, as well as intervals of fine settled weather, are frequent, with the barometer as high and as steady during the *fine* easterly weather as in any part of the world. Hence we decline to infer, that because in the parallel of 50° south the barometer average is low, it must be lower still in 70° south, evidence indicating that a contrary conclusion is safer.

Speculations about the effects of polar condensation of vapor and liberation of latent heat, are very curious, and would be intensely interesting, had we only sufficient *facts* on which to base them, did we even know whether there is a *polynia* in the Arctic, and another such sea, or an archipelago, or a continent, in the Antarctic regions.

In noticing fogs, icebergs and clouds, a variety of very striking remarks is offered. Among the number are observations obtained from Commodore WULLERSTORF, commanding the Austrian frigate *Novara*, only recently returned from a scientific expedition around the world, and some of the results of Prof. PIAZZI SMYTH's astronomical excursion to Teneriffe.

Currency has been given by our author to an expression, not so superior to its equivalent in good English as to justify such frequent use of it. Instead of "variables," we find "doldrums," a rather objectionable corruption of the words "in dolorem," meaning in grief or trouble. Like "fili-buster," it is scarcely a word for general use.

In exploring the great depths of ocean much had been achieved by America before our *later* expeditions were organized; but much had been long contemplated and earnestly desired by the late Sir FRANCIS BEAUFORT, who, in 1853, was planning a voyage, in which deep-sounding

apparatus, similar to that used lately by Sir LEOPOLD M'CLINTOCK, was to have been used; but the Russian war interfered. Several voyagers used contrivances for obtaining material from the bottom of the ocean; but neither the "deep-sea clamma," nor any other instrument, has answered in practice better than a rather modified one, on what is called BROOKES' plan. Our author says:

"The honor of the first attempt to recover specimens of the bottom from great depths belong to Peter the Great of Russia. That remarkable man and illustrious monarch constructed a deep-sea sounding apparatus especially for the Caspian Sea. It was somewhat in the shape of a pair of ice-hooks, and such as are seen in the hands of the 'ice-man,' as, in his daily rounds, he lifts the blocks of ice from his cart in the street for delivery at the door. It was so contrived that, when it touched the bottom, the plummet would become detached, and the hook would bring up the specimen."

Unquestionably submarine exploration is now become one of the most important nautical employments of the time. Hesitating and slowly we advance. Mistakes and accidents, mismanagement and want of knowledge have impeded progress; but triumphant eventually will be its grand consequences.

Describing the condition of infusoria at the bottom of vast depths of ocean, Commander MAURY says:

"Having thus discovered that the most frail and delicate organisms of the sea can remain in its depths for an indefinite length of time without showing a single trace of decay, we find ourselves possessed of a fact which suggests many beautiful fancies, some touching thoughts, and a few useful ideas; and among these last are found reasons for the conjecture that the gutta percha or other insulating material in which the conducting wires of the sub-Atlantic telegraph and other deep-sea lines are incased, becomes, when lodged beyond a certain depth, impervious to the powers of decay; that, with the weight of the sea upon them, the destructive agents which are so busy upon organic matter in the air and near the surface cannot find room for play. Curious that destruction and decay should be imprisoned and rendered inoperative at the bottom of the great deep! * * The unabraded appearance of these shells, and the almost total absence among them of any detritus from the sea or foreign matter, suggest most forcibly the idea of perfect repose at the bottom of the deep sea. Some of the specimens are as pure and as free from the sand of the sea as the freshly-fallen snow-flake is from the dust of the earth. Indeed, these soundings suggest the idea that the sea, like the snow cloud with its flakes in a calm, is always letting fall upon its bed showers of these microscopic shells; and we may readily imagine that the 'sunless wrecks' which strew its bottom are, in the process of ages, hid under this fleecy covering, presenting the rounded appearance which is seen over the body of the traveller who has perished in the snow storm. The ocean, especially within and near the tropics, swarms with life. The remains of its myriads of moving things are conveyed by currents, and scattered and lodged in the course of time all over its bottom. This process, continued for ages, has covered the depths of the ocean as with a mantle, consisting of organisms as delicate as the maced frost, and as light in the water as is down in the air."

Those who are particularly interested in the changes of the world's climate during long periods may turn to chapter xv., with advantage, especially pages 353-4-5. In chapters xvi. to xviii. monsoons and sea climates are discussed in a very interesting manner; however one may feel at times inclined to draw conclusions adverse to those of the author.

The last four chapters, "On Storms, Hurricanes and Typhoons;" "On the Winds of the Southern Hemisphere;" "On the Antarctic Regions and their Climatology," and "On the Actinometry of the Sea," cannot now be further noticed, though full of valuable and interesting material.

In connection with our author's observations on storms and winds in general, one may advert to remarks on their subject in the *Athenæum* of November 17 and 24, 1860, in which Sir JOHN HERSCHEL's and Prof. DOVE's opinions were quoted.

We close this admirable work with an earnest recommendation of it to readers in general, as well as to the scientific, and to the maritime interests especially.—*Athenæum*.

THE COMMERCE OF NORTHERN ITALY.

FROM THE CORRESPONDENT OF THE LONDON TIMES, JANUARY 22.

TILL such time as railway communication may establish, together with the political and administrative unity, also the utmost possible industrial and commercial intercourse by land, the prosperity of this country must necessarily depend chiefly on its maritime resources. The Italians reckon the length of their sea-coasts at 5,894 kilomètres; but in the 3,326 kilomètres which make up the continental line they include Istria and Illyria, and in the 2,568 which they attribute to their islands, they comprehend Corsica and Malta, all of which may only be said to belong to Italy by way of geographical courtesy. The latest returns of the merchant trade of the whole country date from the years 1856-7, since which, as I have had frequent occasion to observe, all statistical operations have, by political vicissitudes, been brought to a standstill. On the 31st of December, 1855, the whole of Italy had 27,320 vessels, with a tonnage of 889,037. In the two following years the vessels were 26,793, of 938,624 tons. The tonnage, which in 1855 was computed in the ratio of 151 tons per kilomètre, rose to 160 tons per kilomètre. The proportions between the shipping and tonnage in the different Italian States give results analogous to those we have observed in the general trade of the country. In old Piedmont the vessels were 2,098, with 208,218 tons. In the Two Sicilies the vessels were 11,032, of 272,305 tons. Venetia and Illyria had 9,704 vessels, of 319,122 tons.

In Genoa alone, from 1845 to 1856, the business of the harbor rose from 372,653 tons to 581,721 tons. In 1851 ships were built in Genoa with a tonnage of 12,346. In 1856 of 22,500 tons. The tendency of the trade led to the construction of vessels of large tonnage, so that on the 31st of December, 1851, Genoa had 1,042 vessels, of 129,504 tons; on the 31st of December, 1856, Genoa had 1,102 vessels, of 163,362 tons; on the 31st of December, 1857, Genoa had 1,102 vessels, of 172,576 tons. The average tonnage in 1852 was only 64 tons per vessel; in 1857 it was 75 tons per vessel.

The cotton imported into Genoa in 1847 was only 32,556 bales; it had risen to 62,970 bales in 1857. Of this 1,400,000 kilogrammes came direct from the cotton-growing countries; about as large a quantity was imported from England.

The same eagerness to build large ships for the ocean trade was discernible in Tuscany. In 1846 Leghorn had 773 vessels, of 24,147 tons; in 1855, 939 vessels, of 55,631 tons. The business transacted in that port in the first year was only 140 millions of francs; in 1855 it had risen to 242 millions. The commerce of Trieste is said to equal in extent that of the whole of old Piedmont—that is, that of Genoa; but, if deduction be made for what belongs to the interior of the Austrian empire, there will remain local business in Trieste to the amount of 514 millions in 1852, and 536 millions in 1857.

The trade of Venice was reckoned at 110 millions in 1853, and 211 millions in 1857. I am, for my own part, no great believer in vague and approximate numbers, and I believe hardly any fair estimate can be made of the general Italian trade such as it was previous to the great political events which are likely to combine the forces and resources of the country into one common effort; but I have before me the excellently arranged authentic statistics published by the Sardinian government, and shall quote a few facts which may give an idea of the importance of the trade of this part of the country. A multiplication of it by five will show us what the combined trade of the whole Peninsula ought to have been before 1859, and what it may actually become if the advantages enjoyed by Piedmont during the last 12 years can be secured to the newly-annexed territories for at least a period of 12 years to come.

The first country in the importance of its trade with Sardinia was France. Sardinia imported to the amount of 115 millions general trade and 77 millions special trade in 1857; 119 millions general trade and 88 millions special trade in 1858. The exports from Sardinia to France were—general trade, 105 millions in 1857, 138 millions in 1858; special trade, 90 millions in 1857, 122 millions in 1858.

Next to the French was the English trade. 63 millions in 1857, and 67 millions in 1858, for the general trade; 38 millions in 1857, and 35 millions in 1858, for special trade were the imports. The exports were 12 millions in 1857, and 6 millions in 1858, general trade; 8 millions in 1857, and 4 millions in 1858, special trade.

The countries which transacted the greatest amount of business with Sardinia, after France and England, were Switzerland, many cantons of which were dependent on Genoa for their maritime communications; then Austria, on account of her Lombardo-Venetian possessions; next came the Italian Duchies, Parma, Modena, Tuscany and Monaco; then the United States of America; after which came the Two Sicilies. Russia was the eighth State considered in the importance of its trade with Piedmont; the 9th was Holland; the 10th, Brazil; the 11th, the West Indies and Central America; 12th, Spain; 13th, South America; 14th, Turkey; 15th, the Papal States; 16th, Belgium; 17th, Tunis and Tripoli, and so on to Greece, which was the 28th State in importance, the last and least. These numbers only refer to the general trade; in special trade occasional differences occur.

To give an idea of the increase of trade in old Piedmont in seven years it will be sufficient to state that the general trade with France was,

in 1851, 150 millions commercial value. In 1858 it had risen to 258 millions. The general trade with England was 44 millions in 1851; it rose to 75 millions in 1858. The general trade of Sardinia with all the countries in the world, which was 469 millions in 1851, had reached 643 millions in 1857, and 880 millions in 1858.

There is, in short, no doubt but the commercial activity and maritime enterprise of the only part of Italy which was free for the last 12 years has been altogether doubled, and very nearly trebled in some of its most important branches. The increase in the dimensions and tonnage of the shipping of the different Italian ports, especially of Genoa and Leghorn, evinces a strong desire on the part of the people to extend their operations beyond the limits of the inland sea within which they had for many years been circumscribed. If we take the old State of Sardinia to represent only one-fifth of the whole Peninsula as to territory and population, it will be easy to calculate the degree of prosperity to which the united kingdom now obeying the sceptre of VICTOR EMANUEL will rise, if liberty lead to as glorious results in the new States as it wrought in the old provinces.

When I stated above that the trade of Sardinia with France is, or was till 1858, about twice the amount of the commerce of the same State with England, it should be understood that the difference is in some measure only apparent, as no small proportion of the goods exported from Italy to France finds its way from this latter country ultimately into England; and, again, large quantities of English manufactures imported into Italy through France go to swell the amount of Italian-French trade. The real wealth of this country, consisting in silk, corn, oil, rice, cattle and other agricultural produce, has been nearly trebled during the last ten or twelve years, and we have frequent instances that not only most of the other articles, but even the last named (cattle) has travelled all the way to England; and a Piedmontese agriculturalist informed me that beef fattened in his own native fields, near Chivasso, was by himself eaten in London when he visited that city at the time of the Great Exhibition of 1851.

IRON SHIPS vs. WOODEN SHIPS.

THE constant recurrence of fatal accidents to iron-built ships is beginning to awaken very serious doubts as to their seaworthiness. A report recently made by a committee of the New-York Chamber of Commerce, from the pen of a veteran captain, does not withhold its censures of the entire system, expressed in very decided terms. The engineers of Great Britain are becoming equally decided in opinion that, as now constructed, they are dangerous craft, and it is even doubtful whether the material itself is as much to be depended on as has been supposed. Six or seven have foundered within a short period, and, as in the instance of the Galway steamer *Connaught*, without the possibility of assigning the definite cause. It is beginning to be feared that the construction of iron ships must be abandoned, unless some new method of putting them together shall be adopted. This would be a serious blow to the steam marine of Great Britain, which has increased with wonderful rapidity since this new application of iron, and also to the enormous manufacturing interests

which are sustained by the practice. The scarcity of ship-timber naturally led to the adoption of this new material, and its supply is always dependent on the continuance of peace, and an uninterrupted navigation of the ocean. It is no wonder then, that the substitution of iron was hailed as the best means of retaining the naval supremacy which has so long been the boast, as it has been the policy, of British statesmen.

Although the construction of iron vessels in England and Scotland has been followed up by the French and Belgians with great spirit, their example has only been recently imitated in the United States; probably for two reasons, one, the abundance of ship-timber, the other the cost of iron and the labor of manufacturing it. Recently, however, we have commenced the system, and at Wilmington, Delaware, upwards of seventy hulls of iron have been put together. At Williamsburgh, Boston and Philadelphia there are also more or less constructed, and the cost is about the same as that of wooden ships coppered. Such, however, is the alarm occasioned by the losses referred to, that the underwriters in Europe and the United States have begun to consider the extra risks which they incur in issuing policies on iron vessels, and numerous experiments have recently been made to arrive at a proper solution of the real difficulties in the case, with a view to obviate them. From a careful examination of these experiments, as reported in some late English scientific journals, we learn the results thus far arrived at are considered to be quite unfavorable. It would appear from these, first, that a preliminary objection is found in the quality of the iron used, which has proved to be very inferior. Tests on this point were made in 1857 under the direction of LLOYDS, and resulted in showing, that the best plates exhibited on the trial would not bear a pressure of five tons per square inch of actual cross section, and the average was barely above ten tons. Subsequently the Board made it a requirement in their rules, that "all plate, beam and angle iron for ships intended for classification" should be stamped on both sides with the maker's name and address. In the course of further experiments by Mr. FAIRBAIRN, a well-known expert, and Mr. BERTRAM, at Woolwich, a singular yet prevalent opinion, that *thick plate is relatively weaker than thin*—a statement that bears alarmingly on the value of iron as a material for ship-building—was fully demonstrated to be true. Indeed, the result was startling. Although the LLOYDS' experiments were made on plates only $\frac{3}{8}$ inch thick, it is determined, in order to obtain a twelve years' regular classification of a 3,000 ton ship at their office, to use iron $1\frac{1}{8}$ inch thick in the garboard streaks, (those next the keel,) but it turns out that a riveted joint of even $\frac{1}{2}$ inch iron is absolutely weaker than one of $\frac{3}{8}$ inch plate. A single riveted seam of a certain width, of $\frac{3}{8}$ inch plate, required a strain of 18 tons to fracture it, while a seam precisely similar in $\frac{1}{2}$ inch iron was torn open at 16 tons. We might adduce other experiments with the same results, but the deduction is sufficient for our purpose, which is, that in a $\frac{3}{8}$ inch plate a single riveted joint possessed 60 per cent. of the full strength of the solid plate; one of $\frac{7}{8}$ inch iron had but 50 per cent., and one of $\frac{1}{2}$ inch plate but 40 per cent., the latter being but two-thirds as strong in proportion to its thickness, and actually weaker, irrespective of thinness itself, than a plate only one-fourth thinner. We can now understand what was meant by a very eminent iron-founder and engineer of this city, who not long ago remarked, that "few knew how singular and how uncertain is the conduct of iron in machinery."

Next : The riveting of iron ships is practically insecure. On the authority before us, from which we quote, we learn that, in frequent instances, a thousand headless rivets may be found in the bottom of an iron hull after only one or two voyages, and that a smart kick of the foot is often sufficient to shake out these decapitated rivets in numbers enough to open the seams and let in the sea. This is rather an alarming feature for the contemplation of a passenger in an iron steamer. We have held the opinion for some years, long before we ever saw the statement before us, that the plates of an iron ship, working and laboring under the effect of a heavy sea, or of the machinery on board, would cut off the heads of these iron rivets.

Again : The ordinary construction, a disproportionate length to breadth, gives rise to these results, and "a vertebral weakness," and a destructive leverage is continually at work on the weak part of the vessels. Their whole fabric may suddenly break up in a heavy gale. LLOYDS have within the year required additional longitudinal strengthening in iron steamers insured by them.

We learn that active efforts are being made by the British builders to overcome these difficulties, by additional stringers, thicker gunwales, cellular girders, (such as are on board the Great Eastern,) fore and aft bulkheads, as well as athwart ships, and as many of these last as twenty or thirty in any large vessel. It is evident that if there be but a few of these bulkheads or compartments in a ship, and one of them shall be staved and filled with water, the strain upon the other parts must be dangerously increased by the additional weight thrown upon them, and the change of the centres of motion and of gravity. It is true that steamers have been saved by this plan of compartments even on a small scale, but it is doubtful whether the other parts of the hull have in subsequent voyages retained their original strength and tightness.

Finally, with iron ships have arisen the uncertainty of compass steering, through the errors arising from local attraction and the difficulty of accurate corrections. The greatest amount of disturbance hitherto known in vessels built of wood, under the most unfavorable circumstances, has rarely exceeded two points, and even this is serious enough, but in iron vessels it may be so great as to render the compass next to useless. In the case of the steamer Shanghai, belonging to the Peninsular and Oriental Company, it was ascertained on one voyage, that while she was heading south, the deviation amounted to $171^{\circ} 34'$, or more than fifteen points. As every piece of iron in a ship may become magnetic by induction, and as the poles vary according to the ship's variation, and change altogether with the latitude north or south of the equator, innumerable expedients have been resorted to to obviate these errors and dangers. The most learned of modern British *savans* have given this subject their close attention for the purpose of furnishing a remedy ; but as every iron ship is a magnet itself, and as the errors of one ship are different from those of another, it has been found in practice that the compasses of each vessel require corrections of their own ; that a vessel, when being constructed, should be placed with particular reference to the magnetic meridian of the place of construction, and when afloat, the effect of local attraction should be determined by the method of swinging ship on the thirty-two points of the compass, and ascertaining the reverse bearings on the ship's deck and on shore.

It is, however, due to our subject to state that these difficulties, though not absolutely overcome, have been rendered less important by the splendid labors of such men as BARLOW, JOHNSON, SCORESBY, AIRY, STEBBING and others of that class, and also by the establishment of a Magnetic Observatory at Woolwich, where the compasses used in the government ships are examined, tested and perfected. A memorial recommending a similar establishment in this city has been for a year past before the Chamber of Commerce, awaiting a proper time for its due consideration.

There has been no greater triumph of mechanical skill in our day than in the adaptation of iron to the purposes of navigation. The largest ship that ever floated on the ocean is constructed of this material, and it was said of her in advance, that in consequence of her cellular construction, although her tonnage (builders' measure) is 22,500 tons, yet if she was merely supported by blocks of stone six feet square at her stem and stern, her deflection midships would not be greater than six inches with all her machinery, coal, cargo and crew on board. We believe, however, that the Great Eastern has not proved as stiff as was expected. It was ascertained, while she was lying in her dock in this harbor, that both her bow and stern had dropped below their original lines, their buoyancy being not proportioned to their weights. Her quality of strength, great as it is, has yet to be tested in future voyages.

It would be most unfortunate, after the great outlay of capital to perfect them, if iron ships should be found unsafe and perishable from causes peculiar to themselves. It remains for the ingenious and scientific to surmount these obstacles by some new arrangement, perhaps of the plates, welding them, rolling them out to a greater length, or placing them diagonally or at some angle with a small strain, or fastening them on a timber skeleton, or by transverse compartments at short distances, as has been proposed. At present, public confidence, we fear, is sadly shaken in its opinion of the seaworthiness of iron ships. It must, however, by no means be overlooked in the consideration of this subject, that, almost without exception, the losses at sea referred to have been those where the screw was the propelling power.

THE WOOL TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

ANNUAL REPORT FOR 1860.

Messrs. R. W. RONALD & SON, of Liverpool.

IN taking a retrospect of the past year, we are happy to say the wool trade, on the whole, has been in a very satisfactory and healthy state. In the early part political events abroad, and to some extent also at home, and, subsequently, serious apprehensions for the harvests, had a somewhat depressing influence, and induced all parties to act with great caution. This feeling has continued more or less throughout the whole twelve months, and greatly tended to impart to our trade that stability and soundness which so favorably distinguish it at present. The exports of woollen manufactures show again an increase, as compared with the previous year, amounting to upwards of £1,000,000 more than in 1859, hitherto the largest year. The consequence has been a steady and profitable employment of the manufacturing population in this branch, which has thus been enabled to become again good customers to the home

trade. The raw material, so far as regards the yield of last year's clip of home growth, has proved materially deficient, owing to the severe and protracted winter, and consequent mortality among sheep. This deficiency has, in some degree, been supplemented by an increase in the imports of colonial and foreign wools, which are unprecedentedly large, exceeding those of the previous year by about 58,000 bales, or 12,000,000 lbs. The exports of colonial and foreign wools have also been larger than in 1859, by about 600,000 lbs., whilst those of home-grown wools by no less than 2,500,000 lbs., owing, no doubt, to the alteration in the French tariff. The total imports of Australian show an increase of about 14,000 bales. The bulk has, as usual, been disposed of at public auction in London, at the following four series, viz.:

	<i>Bales.</i>		<i>Bales.</i>
March 1 to March 20,.....	35,987	of which 23,209 were Capes.	
May 3 to June 1,.....	67,911	"	5,847
July 19 to August 30,.....	88,639	"	10,224
November 15 to December 7,.....	45,576	"	21,138
Together,.....	238,113	"	54,418

The condition of Australian has been about the same as in the preceding year. During the first three sales, prices taken on the average did not undergo any material change, but at the last series, an advance of fully 1d. per lb. having been established, present rates must be quoted that much higher than at this time last year. Cape wools show but trifling improvement in price, and the condition still leaves much to be desired. The imports amount to upwards of 19,000 bags more than in 1859. The imports of 3,180 bales from North America have been principally the growth of Canada, of long-stapled description, and very well adapted to compete with English wool. There has again been a great falling off in the imports from Buenos Ayres, but we have had a very good inquiry, and our markets are quite bare of stock. The imports of Peruvian sheep's wool show a considerable decrease on those in 1859. Alpaca has arrived in larger quantity than ever, the imports being 10,000 ballots in excess of 1859. The demand has been principally for the best qualities, and stocks have been light throughout the year, as importers have met the demand by making, from time to time, considerable sales "for arrival." East India shows a very material increase in the imports, which have almost exclusively been directed to this port, and have formed the chief attraction at our public sales during the year, of which we had four series, viz.:

	<i>Bales.</i>
The first, from Jan. 24 to Feb. 3, with,.....	14,347
The second, from April 18 to April 27, with,.....	13,070
The third, from June 25 to July 4, with,.....	10,557
The fourth, from Sept. 19 to Sept. 29, with,.....	18,560
In all,.....	56,534

Prices have, on the average, been very well maintained, while the condition of these wools, generally speaking, has not shown any marked improvement. The supply of domestic wools, owing to the circumstances alluded to in our general remarks, has been considerably short of former years, and we may safely put the deficiency down as at least 15 per cent-

when compared with 1859. The position of our market seems at present to be this. There is an increase in the imports of wool, according to the official trade returns, of 10 per cent., from which must be deducted an increase in the exports of wool of 9 per cent., thus leaving a net surplus of only 1 per cent. Against this, however, there appears an increase in the exports of manufactured woollen goods and yarns of 8 per cent., which, added to the deficiency in the home-growth of 15 per cent., leaves the supply of wool 22 per cent. short of that of 1859.

THE TIMBER TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

ANNUAL REPORT.

From F. K. BARNES & SONS' Monthly Timber Circular.

CANONS' MARSH, *Bristol, Feb. 1, 1861.*

THE retrospect of the timber trade in the port of Bristol since the 1st February, 1860, is gratifying; for throughout the season there has been but little check, and prices have steadily advanced. When the first intimation was given that an equalization of the duties on wood was proposed by Mr. GLADSTONE, (the effect of which would be to bring the rate on foreign wood to a par with that from our own colonies,) some slight mistrust was experienced, and prices gave way nearly to the extent of the reduction made; but owing to the healthy state of our market, and the light stock on hand, prices gradually improved; and since the new duty came into operation, we have had monthly to report a steady advance. The reduction has thus had a similar effect to what it had on former occasions; and instead of acting prejudicially to our colonial sellers, they have, owing to an increasing demand and the prosperity of our country, obtained fully as high prices as they did before the alteration. We believe that they will continue to so, for the wood from Canada is of a description which is essential for many purposes, and cannot be obtained from the Baltic, and the spruce of New-Brunswick comes forward at lower prices than any large quantity of Baltic wood, notwithstanding the difference in freight. We shall, therefore, always have to rely on North America for the bulk of our requirements in the cheap descriptions of timber and the soft pine of that country.

The prospects for the ensuing year we can scarcely foresee. If, during the next two or three months, there is a brisk demand, the stock here is so moderate that it will be consumed, and, in that case, importation will be active; but if, on the contrary, we have a severe winter and a late spring, coupled with pressure on the money market, or any other circumstance that acts against the prosperity of our country, the stock in this port will carry us well into the summer, and but a light trade will be done by our importers at the opening of the season. Our opinion is, that the spring trade will be steady, without any extraordinary excitement or depression, and that the early operations will, therefore, be of a moderate character.

This port, we are pleased to advise, has well maintained its position as

an important timber market; and although at one time we feared a large falling off in the amount of our tonnage employed, compared with that of the year 1859, (which falling off was, on the 1st of October, 14,348 tons, and on the 1st December, 15,667 tons short, as compared with the corresponding months in 1859, it is, we are gratified to state, but 6,945 tons short at the present time. This proves how well Bristol has maintained her position as a rising timber market.

The rates of freight are as difficult to foretell this year as the prospects of our importing trade, and will depend very much on our home spring trade. The past, if not a very profitable year to our ship-owners, has at least been a paying one, and subject to no violent depression. Indeed, the autumn rates were high. We are of opinion that spring charters to this channel will be done at 33s. from Quebec, or thereabouts. New-Brunswick freights, at present high, will recede as the spring opens, when American and Norwegian vessels offer. We may anticipate low rates from the deal ports of North America; for, owing to the secession movement in that country, we apprehend that the ship-owners of the northern States will prefer employing their vessels in deal carrying, to risking them with their southern neighbors. Baltic freights bid fair to open high, and we expect that 18s. from Danzig to Memel, 60s. @ 70s. per Petersburg standard hundred from gulf ports, and 90s. from the White Sea, will be about the rates. From Cronstadt we can scarcely hope to have the low return freight of American vessels; and if not, freights to this coast are too high to enable the importer to operate on this market profitably.

Importation, Consumption and Stock for the years 1858, 1859 and 1860.

<i>Importation.</i>					
	1858.		1859.		1860.
Colonial timber,.....	1,292,000	1,066,500	1,415,000
Colonial deals,.....	1,893,000	2,703,700	1,640,000
Total in cubic feet,.....	3,185,000	3,770,200	3,055,000
Foreign timber,.....	419,500	719,300	908,000
Foreign deals,.....	812,500	1,281,900	1,417,500
Total in cubic feet,.....	1,232,000	2,001,200	2,325,500
Aggregate total,.....	4,417,000	5,771,400	5,380,500
<i>Consumption.</i>					
	1858.		1859.		1860.
Colonial timber,.....	1,075,000	1,071,500	1,400,000
Colonial deals,.....	2,463,500	2,260,450	1,658,150
Total in cubic feet,.....	3,538,500	3,331,950	3,058,150
Foreign timber,.....	668,500	475,800	937,500
Foreign deals,.....	916,000	983,650	1,307,950
Total in cubic feet,.....	1,584,500	1,459,450	2,245,450
Aggregate total,.....	5,123,000	4,791,400	5,303,600

	Stock.		
	1858.	1859.	1860.
Colonial timber,.....	329,000	324,000	339,000
Colonial deals,.....	324,000	767,250	749,100
Total in cubic feet,.....	653,000	1,091,250	1,088,100
Foreign timber,.....	101,500	345,000	315,500
Foreign deals,.....	403,000	701,250	810,800
Total in cubic feet,.....	504,500	1,046,250	1,126,300
Aggregate total,.....	1,157,500	2,137,500	2,214,400

Colonial Timber.—Quebec Pine.—The importation has been 1,150,000 feet, the consumption, 1,090,500, the stock remaining on hand, 333,500, which appears, on the first glance, much greater than it was last year; but on comparing the total stock of colonial timber, the surplus is but trifling; and on looking further there is a considerable diminution in Baltic fir; but as colonial timber is largely used for building purposes in the place of Baltic, we do not consider that we have more than enough on hand for the requirements of our trade before the new importation, although at the same time it must be remembered that our principal consumers are well supplied, and that their stock is not taken into account in our tables. Prices have been steady throughout the year, with little variation—building timber ranging from 1s. 2d. to 1s. 3d., and 60 feet average pine from 1s. 4d. to 1s. 6d. Board timber is not appreciated at a remunerative cost to the importers. Some good Waney board pine has been brought here, but owing to the loss in measure (as all timber is sold by calliper measure) it has not commanded the ready sale it does in other markets. *Saint John Pine.*—The importation was only 47,500 feet; consumption, 80,000; stock on hand, 2,500. No really good timber having been brought to our market all the year, the prices obtained have not exceeded those of common Quebec pine. Small quantities of large-sized fair quality timber would command paying prices if brought forward at moderate rates of freight. *Lower Port Pine.*—The stock, importation and consumption are very trifling, and this timber is not a favorite in our market.

Oak.—Importation, 75,000 feet; consumption, 84,500; stock, 3,000. It will thus be seen that the increase on import and consumption is very large, and we are left with but a small stock of 3,000 feet. Owing to the large supply, prices at one time were as low as 1s. 10d. per foot; but, owing to a good demand, they rapidly advanced to 2s. 3d. It is now worth from 2s. 3d. to 3s. The demand was caused by the great requirements of railway companies for truck building; and if, as is anticipated, a wagon-building company is established in Bristol, there will for the future be a large consumption of this timber here.

Elm.—Importation, 13,000 feet; consumption, 13,450; stock, 7,800. We have not a great demand for this article, as there is little ship-building in the port.

Birch.—Importation from all ports is 47,000 feet; consumption, 20,800; stock, 33,200; (this includes ash, walnut, &c.) The stock on hand is nearly double what it was last year; prices, however, have been fairly maintained, Quebec being steady at about 1s. 8d., St. John and Pictou, from 1s. 4d. to 1s. 8d., Prince Edward's Island, 1s. 3d. to 1s. 8d. It

may be noticed that the importation is less than in 1859 by 25,600 feet, and the stock is only 9,200 in excess.

Spruce and Pine Deals.—Importation, 6,666 Petersburg standard hundred; consumption, 7,666; stock, 3,000; showing, by our tables, a decrease in import of nearly 7,000 standard hundred; of consumption, 4,000 standard hundred; of stock held over, 1,000 standard hundred. But it must be remembered, that since the 1st of November last, the importation has been 3,200 standard hundred, which is an excess on the stock now held of 200 standard hundred. During the year there was a great scarcity of these goods, and prices, which were dull at from £8 to £8 10s. last spring, steadily advanced to from £10 to £10 10s., at which figure they are now steady. We would, however, caution importers not to import at high freights, for the stock is ample for our requirements during the next four months, during and after which time, lower freights may be expected, and future shipments of deals coming forward at present high rates must entail a heavy loss. Our market is capable of receiving a much larger supply than was brought here last year; but that supply should be regular, and not all forced on the market at one time, unless at exceedingly low freights.

Quebec Deals.—Importation, 3,300 standard hundred; consumption, 2,410 standard; stock, 1,540 standard. Notwithstanding the increase in supply over the previous year of nearly 1,000 standard hundred, these goods have maintained a steady position, and prices have been remunerative. There has been a decided improvement in the brack of these deals at Quebec, but there is still room for more. Larger quantities of extra lengths (13 and 14 feet) have also come forward, and are duly appreciated. We recommend cutters to increase the manufacture of these lengths. Prices have been firm at from £16 3s. to £17 for first quality; £11 10s. to £12 10s. for second, and £10 10s. for third.

Quebec Staves.—Importation of pipe staves, 76 St. Mill; consumption, 36, and stock, 63, (the stock being augmented by several parcels coming coastways.) Of West India puncheon staves the importation has been 125 Mille; consumption, 113 Mille; stock, 70 Mille. Throughout the year demand has been dull, and sales cannot be forced except at a great sacrifice. Unless there is a great improvement in demand, the stock is ample of both kinds for the present year. Prices of pipe staves have ranged from £55 to £72 10s., and of West India puncheon from £16 to £17 10s.

Lath-wood.—The importation has scarcely been equal to the demand, and prices have been good throughout. We may expect large quantities this year for stowage, in lieu of staves.

Cargoes of Wood imported into Bristol during the last seven years.

<i>Years ending the season of</i>	<i>Vessels.</i>	<i>Tons Register.</i>
1854.....	145	69,616
1855.....	99	44,775
1856.....	148	73,341
1857.....	151	73,436
1858.....	144	68,863
1859.....	193	91,007
1860.....	167	84,062

WHOLESALE PRICE CURRENT.

Articles from Quebec.	Prices.	Imported	Imported
		from Feb. 1st to Jan. 1st, 1860.	from Feb. 1st to Jan. 1st, 1861.
Yellow pine, per foot, cube,.....	1s. 3d. to 1s. 8d. }	15,171	19,882
Red pine, "	1 7 to 1 9 }		
Oak, "	2 3 to 2 9 }	384	917
Elm, "	1 8 to 2 0 }		
Ash, "	1 9 to 2 0 }	634	535
Birch, "	1 9 to 2 0 }		
Walnut, none.		795	1,777
<i>Yellow Pine Deals.</i>			
First quality, per 120, Pe'tg standard, £16 10s. to £17 10s. }			
Second " " " 12 10 to 13 0 }		144,485	199,491
Third " None. 10 0 to 10 0 }			
<i>Spruce Deals.</i>			
First quality, None.			
Second quality, None.			
Std. staves, per mille,.....	66 0 to 65 0 }		
First quality, "		61,538	76,361
Brack, None.			
Do. W. O. Pun., per 1,200,.....	18 0 to 20 0 }		
First quality, "		178,013	153,358
Brack, "			
Lath-wood, per fathom of 144 feet,...	5 15 to 6 10	229	380
Hickory billets, per doz.,.....	1 16 to 0 0		

THE FRENCH COMMERCIAL TREATY WITH GREAT BRITAIN.

THE Liverpool Chamber of Commerce recently passed votes of thanks to Mr. COBDEN and Mr. MALET, for their management of the details of the treaty of commerce with France. From Mr. COBDEN the following letter has been received :

ALGIERS, 20th March, 1861.

SIR,—I beg to acknowledge the receipt of the resolution of the Chamber of Commerce of Liverpool, bearing your signature as president, thanking me for my exertions in arranging the commercial treaty with France. I observe, with satisfaction, the judicious reserve with which the Chamber abstains from committing itself to our approval of the general principle of commercial treaties. The arrangement lately entered into with the French government is not, in its old and extensive sense, a commercial treaty, but a simultaneous movement on the part of the two countries in the direction of general freedom of trade. Nor should the changes made in the French tariff be judged merely by the standard of abstract principle, but with a fair consideration for the opposition which the government had to encounter, in its first serious measure of commercial reform, from an unbroken phalanx of monopolists, whose power can be more fully appreciated after the late demonstrations of the conservative party in the French Chambers. The great feature of the recent commercial arrangements, to my humble apprehension, is their tendency to limit the power of governments to disturb the amicable relations of the two countries, by making their friendship depend, not on dynastic sympathies, or the alliance with any particular ministry, but, to borrow the sentiment of Prince NAPOLEON, on the union of France with the great English people.

I remain, sir, your obedient servant,

RICHARD COBDEN.

W. J. TOMLINSON, Esq., Chamber of Commerce, Liverpool.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

PARTNERS AND AGENTS.

Liability as Partner.—The case of *FITCH and others vs. HARRINGTON and others*, reported in 16 *Gray's Reports*, (Mass.) 468, illustrates how easily and without intending it, one can become a member of a firm so as to be liable for its debts.

WHITEMORE, HARRINGTON & Co. was a firm doing business till 1857, when they stopped payment. While they were so engaged in business, LEONARD HARRINGTON, one of the members of the firm, made an arrangement with SAMUEL P. HARRINGTON, by which the share of LEONARD HARRINGTON was to be, and was thereafter owned by SAMUEL and LEONARD jointly. This arrangement was unknown to the other members of the firm, as well as to outsiders. After the failure of the firm, a creditor having learned of this arrangement, brought his action, making SAMUEL P. HARRINGTON one of the defendants, alleging he was a partner by virtue of the above-mentioned arrangement, and liable for the firm's debts. In submitting the case to the jury, the plaintiff requested the court to instruct the jury "that although SAMUEL P. HARRINGTON was not known by the members of the firm to be a partner, yet if the share in the partnership concern which stood in the name of LEONARD only, was owned jointly by LEONARD and SAMUEL, and SAMUEL, as between him and LEONARD, was entitled to the profits which might be derived from that share, he (SAMUEL) was a partner in the firm as to the plaintiffs, and liable to them in this action."

The court declined so to instruct the jury, and the plaintiffs excepted to the decision of the court, and appealed. On the appeal, the appellate court reversed the judgment, and granted a new trial. In making this disposition of the matter, the court said, among other things:

"Now what is our law and the law of England on this subject? We understand it to be thus: An agreement between one copartner and a third person, that he shall participate in the profits of the firm, renders him liable as a partner to the creditors of the firm, although as between himself and the members of the firm he is not their copartner."

Agent—Usury.—We are glad to find one case in which the court has declined to make the principal liable for the acts of his agent, and in which also it has declared that every statement of facts does not make out the defence of usury; and yet even in this case three of the members of the court dissented!!! We refer to the matter of *CONDIT vs. BALDWIN*, 21 *New-York Reps.* 219. This was an action on a promissory note. Defence—usury, of course.

The facts of the case were these: The plaintiff placed in the hands of S. R. WILLIAMS, an attorney and counsellor at law, the sum of \$400, to invest for her at lawful interest. On or about the first of May, 1851, the defendant, BALDWIN, made application to G. C. MILLS, residing in the same place, to procure a loan for him for \$400 for two years, on his note,

with other defendants as sureties. MILLS agreed to make the effort, and applied to WILLIAMS to obtain the loan. WILLIAMS said he had the amount wanted to loan for a lady, but he preferred to loan the money on bond and mortgage, as in that event he should receive, to his advantage, compensation for drawing bond and mortgage, and examining the title to the property mortgage. MILLS stated that the money was wanted on a note, and who would be the parties to it, and that BALDWIN has offered to compensate him for procuring the loan; and it was agreed between MILLS and WILLIAMS that if WILLIAMS would lend the money on the note, he should have \$25 as attorney's fees. WILLIAMS then agreed to make the loan. MILLS called afterwards upon WILLIAMS with the note, and WILLIAMS gave him his check for the \$400, which was paid. MILLS handed BALDWIN the \$400. On being asked by him what were the charges, MILLS replied \$40, which BALDWIN then paid him. BALDWIN did not know how it was disposed of by MILLS, who kept for himself \$15, and paid WILLIAMS \$25. Judgment was ordered for plaintiff, and the defendant appealed.

The substance of the opinion of the court was as follows :

It is the essence of an usurious transaction, that there shall be an unlawful and corrupt intent, on the part of the lender, to take illegal interest; and so we must find before we can pronounce the transaction to be usurious.

When, indeed, the contract, upon its very face, imports usury, as by an express reservation of more than legal interest, there is no room for presumption, for the intent is apparent, *res ipsa loquitur*. But when the contract, on its face, is for legal interest only, then it must be proved that there was some corrupt agreement or device or shift to cover usury. Now, in this case, we see that the plaintiff never intended to violate the law, never authorized any such violation, and never knew or had any intimation that her agent or attorney had violated it. If a master command his servant to do what is lawful, and he do an unlawful act, the master shall not answer, but the servant for his own misbehavior; otherwise it would be in the power of every servant to subject his master to what actions or penalties he pleased. In this case WILLIAMS availed himself of his position as the plaintiff's agent to make a contract on his own account, and for his own individual benefit. In thus dealing he did not act or assume to act as the plaintiff's agent. He required compensation for a service which he alleged he rendered to BALDWIN. It was his individual affair, not that of the plaintiff; and if it was a shift or device on his part to take and receive usurious interest to himself on this loan, he has subjected himself to the penalties of the statute.

But it is urged, with great earnestness and ability, that the plaintiff, by accepting the note, and commencing this suit upon it, has ratified all the acts of her agent, connected with the loan, and attendant upon its inception. We have looked carefully at all the authorities cited by the learned counsel for the defendants, and we think they fail to sustain the proposition contended for.

The plaintiff, by receiving and accepting the note for the amount of her money, and which she loaned through her agent, only ratified the contract of loan at the rate of interest expressed in the note. She had no knowledge of, and cannot be held to have ratified the payment, by

BALDWIN's agent to WILLIAMS, of the \$25 usurious by him taken, as is said. We think the cases fully sustain this view of the plaintiff's act, in receiving the note, and commencing suit thereon. The court, in the opinion, goes on to state many other grounds for its decision, but we deem it unnecessary to reproduce them here.

INSURANCE.

Mutual Insurance.—In the last volume of the *Reports of the Court of Appeals of the State of New-York*, (21 *New-York Reports*.) we find reported several cases of considerable importance to all interested in the system of Mutual Insurance.

First.—We would refer to the case of BANGS, Receiver, *vs.* SKIDMORE, (21 *N. Y. R.* 136.)

Parties insuring in a mutual insurance company, as is well known, generally take a policy for a term of years and give a premium note in full or part payment of the premium. The premium note thus given becomes a part of the assets of the company, liable to be assessed for its proportion of the losses which may happen during the life of the policy issued on the note. The case here referred to, (BANGS, Receiver, *vs.* SKIDMORE,) was one where a policy had been issued to the defendant for the period of five years, and the defendant gave a premium note for \$420. About five months after the date of the policy, the property insured was totally destroyed by fire, upon which the company paid him the amount insured, deducting his proportion of all losses and incidental expenses which had been incurred up to that time. After this, (that is, after the happening of this fire and the payment of the loss,) other losses by fire occurred upon other property insured by the company, on account of which assessments were made on the premium notes, including the one which the defendant had given, he being charged with \$139 78 as his proportion of those losses.

The defendant insisted that his membership in the company and his liability for any losses incurred ceased when the property was burned—that he was not liable for losses or expenses which were incurred after that time.

The court, however, held that the defendant continued liable to contribute his *pro rata* share to the payment of all losses happening after the burning of his own property and all that happened at any time during the term of five years for which his policy was issued.

The practice in this particular has been, we think, contrary to the principle here laid down. Parties managing these companies have considered that the policy and note expired with the payment of the loss, (where the loss was total,) and that, therefore, the note could not be assessed for any subsequent losses. But as the above is a decision of the highest court of the State, it must, of course, be received as an authoritative exposition of the law, and govern every company in the State, the provisions of whose charter are similar in this respect to the one passed upon by the court.

Second.—*Cash Insurance by Mutual Companies.*—This is another point which has been in litigation in New-York State, the last four or five years, and which the Court of Appeals has now decided, to wit: whether mutual

insurance companies, formed under the general insurance act of 1849, could issue policies on the payment of a cash premium only, and where the insured gave no premium note. Thousands of such policies have been issued by companies, (which have now failed,) organized under the said act, and losses have happened under such policies, which losses are pressed as claims against the companies. Those who desired to repudiate these contracts have urged that they were void, for the reason that a mutual company could not issue a policy without receiving from the assured a premium or deposit note—that the very essence of a mutual insurance company was, “that each of the parties should sustain the relation of an assured party and of an insurer of each of the others.” Where persons give premium or deposit notes and take policies of insurance the notes become a fund out of which losses are paid—each note paying its proportionate share. But if a policy is issued by such a company to one who only pays a cash premium, he contributes no note to the common fund, and therefore in no sense becomes an insurer of the others. A cash or stock insurance company could issue such policies, because they do not intend the assured to become the insurers, (they pledge their cash capital to pay their losses,) but a mutual insurance company (having no capital but premium notes) could not do that class of business without going contrary to the very principle of their existence. Such has been in substance the argument of those who have sought to repudiate these contracts.

The court, however, has now (21 *N. Y. R.* 52, *MYGATT vs. N. Y. PROTECTION INSURANCE COMPANY*,) held that the mutual companies formed under this general insurance law of 1849 had and have the power to issue these two kinds of policies, and in a subsequent case they have also held, (*WHITE, Receiver, vs. HAVENS*, 22 *How. Pr. Reps.* 177,) that the premium notes of these mutual insurance companies must be assessed to pay losses under these notes, as well as the losses under the premium note policies—thus in every way affirming these contracts. The principal points of the opinion of the court are as follows:

I. There is clearly no good reason why the legislature should have provided for so rigid a separation of the two species of insurance companies. That it was never supposed there was any ground of policy which required that mutual insurance companies should be prohibited from receiving cash premiums, is conclusively shown by the course of legislation upon the subject. Acts have been repeatedly passed, conferring upon such companies this power, in the precise terms used by the defendants in their charter. It was conferred upon the Albany County Mutual Insurance Company in 1848, upon the Herkimer County Company in 1850, and upon various other companies in subsequent years. The legislature seems to have been ever ready, upon request, to authorize these companies to receive their premium in cash, instead of premium notes.

II. The question, then, upon this point is, whether those provisions of the act of 1849, already referred to, discriminating to some extent between joint-stock and mutual companies, exhibit an implied intention to prohibit mutual companies from issuing cash policies. It is indispensable for the defendants to maintain the affirmative of this, because, as the power of the companies under section ten, to frame their own charters, is conferred in unrestricted terms, they may, of course, provide for this class of busi-

ness, unless the limitation of this power upon which the defendants insist, is elsewhere found.

III. The court, after examining at length the statute, says: My conclusion, therefore, would be, that if the policy in question is to be regarded as issued to a mere outside party, without any reference in itself to the principles of mutuality, it would, nevertheless, be valid and binding.

IV. The court then goes one step further and says: If, however, we assume the contrary, and suppose it to be indispensable that the mutual principle, as it is called, should be observed in all the policies issued by a mutual company, the result, I think, would not be different.

It is somewhat difficult to ascertain with precision in what this mutual principle, so strenuously contended for, is claimed to consist, as mutual companies have assumed a great variety of forms. But I will suppose, for the purpose of this case, that it involved all the requirements suggested on the part of the defendants.

If it be said that mutuality requires that there should be some sort of ratable equality between those who pay their premiums in cash and those who give notes, this is easily attained. When the present value of a life annuity, or of a right of dower, is estimated upon principles which experience has established, the sum arrived at is, in the eye of the law, just equal to the contingent interest which it represents.

So, when the chances of liability upon a premium note are calculated upon principles similar, if not as exact, a sum is found which may be regarded as equivalent to the contingent liability upon the note. Indeed, all premiums for insurance are calculated upon this principle.

V. Again, it is said that the principles of mutual insurance require that every person insured upon that plan should be, also, himself an insurer; that is, that each person insured must also be an insurer of all his associates as well as insured by them; and it is said that an insured person who has paid a premium of a definite sum, in the language of the defendants' charter, "*in full for said insurance*," and who, therefore, is not responsible for any thing more, cannot be a mutual insurer, because he is not, in any sense, an insurer at all. This argument is based upon what I regard as an erroneous view of the true distinction between a mutual and a joint-stock company.

Indeed, much of the difficulty on the subject has been produced by attaching a meaning to the word mutual, in its connection with insurance, which does not belong to it. A mutual insurance company is simply a company whose fund for the payment of losses and expenses consists not of a capital subscribed or furnished by outside parties, but of premiums mutually contributed by the parties insured.

ANGELL says: "A mutual insurance company, in its origin, was a body of persons, each of whom was desirous of effecting an insurance; and he agreed with the rest of the members to contribute the premiums to a common fund, *on the terms* that he should be entitled to receive out of that fund." (*Angell on Fire and Life Insurance*, sec. 413.) There is not a word about the parties being insurers of each other further than as they were made so by the payment of a cash premium. They made up a common fund by means of their common or mutual contribution, upon which each had a claim for any loss in respect to the property insured. There was no responsibility beyond that, and this is all that is essential to a mutual company. The "mutual principle," as it is called, requires nothing more.

Joint-stock companies have a subscribed capital. Mutual companies do not, but depend upon their premiums. This is what distinguishes them, and whether the premiums are paid in cash or by notes has nothing to do with the distinction.

It is no answer to this to say that mutual companies contemplate only indemnity against loss, and not the accumulation of a fund to be divided among the corporators. This depends upon the manner in which they conduct their business. There is nothing to prevent a mutual company from carrying on its operations with a view to profit and dividends. Indeed, the act of 1849 plainly contemplates that they will, or at least that they may do so, when it provides in section 21 that they may allow to parties contributing a cash capital a "participation in their (its) profits."

VI. But were this question not as clear upon principle as I think it is, it may be regarded as settled by authority. What is claimed on the part of the defendant is, that issuing policies for premiums payable in money is not appropriate business for a mutual insurance company, and at all events, for one which also takes premium notes subject to assessment; that it assimilates such company to a joint-stock company, which the act of 1849 does not permit; and that there is a want of mutuality between those paying cash premiums and those who give notes.

These same questions received the deliberate examination of the Supreme Court of Ohio, in the case of the OHIO MUTUAL INSURANCE COMPANY *vs.* MARIETTA WOOLLEN FACTORY. (3 *Ohio State R., N. S.*, 348.) The court in that case held the contract valid and binding on the company.

VII. But the question under our statute, and in precisely such a case as that now before us, has been passed upon by the Supreme Court of the United States in the case of THE UNION INSURANCE COMPANY *vs.* HOGE. (21 *How. U. S. R.* 35.) The company in that case was incorporated in this State under the law of 1849, and its charter was identical with that of the defendants here. The action was brought upon a policy, the premium upon which had been paid in money. The case appears to have been elaborately argued, and among the objections made by the counsel for the company to the issuing of cash policies, is the following: "That it destroys the principle of *mutuality*, which is the leading characteristic of mutual companies, formed under the laws of 1849, and confounds the operation of a company organized to do business on the mutual plan with that of those companies which are organized on the plan of stock companies, and which are in their nature and principles antagonistic to the mutual companies."

On this point the court of NELSON, J., say: "It is argued, however, that the company in question is a mutual insurance company, as declared by the act; that according to this system the insured must be a member of it; and that a person insured upon a cash premium, without any further liability, cannot be a member.

"*This argument is not well founded* either upon principle or authority. Admitting that the insured must be a member of the company, he is made so by the payment of the cash premium. The theory of a mutual insurance company is, that the premiums paid by each member for the insurance of his property constitute a common fund, devoted to the payment of any losses that may occur. Now, the cash premium may as well represent the insured in the common fund as the premium note;

and this class of companies has been so long engaged in the business of insurance it may well be that they can determine with sufficient certainty, for all practical purposes, the just difference in the rates of premium between cash and notes. These mutual companies, possessing the authority contained in the eighth section of the charter, viz., to take cash premiums, or premium notes, are, at the present day, in operation in several of the States, and it has never been supposed that the mutual principle has been thereby abrogated."

The court gave judgment in accordance with the foregoing opinion.

General Average.—We find also reported in the last volume of the Reports of the Court of Appeals of the State of New-York, (21 N. Y. R. 33,) the case of *NELSON vs. BELMONT*, the appeal having been taken from the Superior Court of New-York city.

The decision of the court is one of particular interest to underwriters, shippers and others.

The facts found are as follows: The ship *GALENA* sailed from New-Orleans for Havre, having on board a cargo of cotton and \$30,853 in specie belonging to the defendant. On the afternoon of July 23, 1853, the vessel was struck with lightning in the Gulf Stream, and was found to be on fire in the hold. After attempting to extinguish it by pouring on water, and to stifle it by excluding air, a Danish vessel, in sight, was signalized and visited, and the passengers and their baggage transferred to her, which was completed by eleven o'clock at night. The captain of the *GALENA* then boarded the Danish vessel, and engaged her to keep company during the night, that if the fire was not extinguished he might board her again in the morning. The fire appeared to gain, and at daylight the captain concluded that he could not put it out and must make a port of distress.

An arrangement was then made with the Danish captain, by which he was to take the specie on board his vessel and accompany the *GALENA* into Charleston. This was done because he had the passengers on board, and as a protection to the crew in case they had to leave the ship if the fire burst out. The specie was transferred, because if the fire broke out it might be too late to remove it from the *GALENA*. Both vessels bore away for Charleston, which they reached on the 26th. The fire, meantime, did not appear to decrease. The fire engines of the city poured water into the *GALENA* until she filled and sank to the upper deck. The cotton was covered with water, and absorbed a good deal; very little of it had been previously injured. The captain, after discovering at Charleston the extent of the damage to the ship and cargo, determined to abandon the voyage. He sold the cargo there, and remitted the proceeds.

While in the harbor, and before reaching the wharf, he got the specie from the Danish vessel and deposited it in bank. The action was brought against the defendant, as owner of the specie, for its proportion, on general average, of losses, expenses and damages incurred by the vessel on which it and the rest of the cargo were shipped. The amount due by the specie was \$13,884, in case it was determined that it was liable to contribute, in general average, to the amount paid for the services of the Danish brig, the expenses at Charleston in sinking and raising the vessel, repairs, and damages to the cotton from the water, &c.

The Court of Appeals held the specie was so liable.

The following are the leading propositions laid down by the judge, who wrote the opinion of the court :

First.—In determining this question it will be necessary to recur to the principle upon which general average is based. That principle is, that where several persons are engaged in a joint enterprise, whatever is necessarily done for the common benefit ought to be done at the common expense. It is of the essence of this principle that it looks upon the enterprise as a whole, as an entirety. It is true that in apportioning the loss regard is had to the interest of the respective parties. But in other respects no separate interest is recognised. Until, therefore, some portion of the property has been separated from the rest, so as no longer to have any interest in common with it, every risk, which affects the enterprise as a whole, must be regarded as affecting each portion of the property engaged.

Second.—But if the owner of any portion of the cargo, even after a peril has occurred, and after a series of measures to avert it have been commenced, can succeed in so separating his own property from the rest that it is no longer in any sense at risk, he cannot be held liable to contribute to the expenses subsequently incurred. But in order rightly to apply this rule, it is necessary to ascertain the full scope of the term "at risk." Physical destruction, or direct physical injury to the ship or cargo itself, is not the only risk to which property so situated is exposed. Its value depends, or at least is supposed to depend, in some degree, upon the successful prosecution of the voyage. Whatever threatens the voyage, therefore, is a peril to the entire property. Until that is broken up, unless the property claimed to be exempt is not only separated from the rest, and put in a place of present safety, but entirely disconnected with the enterprise, it must be regarded as still at risk, and liable to contribute.

If the voyage is not abandoned, and the property although separated from the rest and removed from the ship is still under the control of the master, and liable to be taken again on board for the purpose of being carried to its destined port, the relations of the several owners are in no respect changed. The common interest remains, and whatever is done for the protection of that common interest must be done at the common expense.

Third.—The result of these principles, when applied to the present case, is plain. It turns entirely upon the nature and object of the separation of the specie from the ship *GALENA* and from the residue of the cargo when it was placed on board of the Danish brig. I entertain no doubt that such a severance, as would have exempted it from all liability to contribute to the subsequent expenses, might have been effected by the master of the vessel, in the same manner as by the owner himself, had he been present.

The master is the agent and representative of each of the owners in respect to their several shares of the property under his charge, and has the same right which the owners themselves would have to take measures for its preservation.

If, therefore, the captain of the *GALENA* had put the specie on board the brig, not in any event to be returned to him, but to be taken by the brig to its own port of destination, and the latter had then been suffered to pursue its course, the specie would clearly not have been subject to contribution for any subsequent expenditures to save the *GALENA*. And notwithstanding the brig was employed to attend the *GALENA* to Charles-

ton, if it had been distinctly understood between the two commanders that the specie was committed entirely to the custody of the Danish captain, and was in no event to be restored to the care of the captain of the *GALENA*, it would then, also, have been exempt.

But the facts do not warrant this assumption. The case states that "the specie was put on board the brig because it was safer there, as in case the fire broke out it might be too late to transfer it from the ship." The brig was to accompany the *GALENA* to Charleston, and there is nothing from which it can be inferred that it was the intention of the captain of the latter to relinquish his control of the specie.

The fact that he reclaimed and took it from the brig as soon as he arrived in Charleston, tends strongly to the opposite inference. It never ceased, therefore, up to that time, to constitute a part of the cargo of the *GALENA*; and if the fire had been previously extinguished, and the voyage resumed, it would, of course, have been again taken on board and carried forward by her.

The case of *BEDFORD COMMERCIAL INSURANCE COMPANY vs. PARKER*, (2 Pick. 1.) *Mass. Reports*, will be found to agree entirely in principle with the foregoing.

ADMIRALTY LAW.

Before the United States District Court for Massachusetts.—In Admiralty.—Jan. 31. *SPRAGUE, J. JOHN DONAHAY vs. WESTON HOWLAND et al.*

This was a libel by the cooper of the whale ship "*MANUEL ORTIS*," of New-Bedford, for his "lay," which, by the shipping articles, was fixed at 1-55. The defence alleged incompetency in the libellant and disrating after trial and examination by the master. It appeared that after about three months of her voyage the vessel arrived at New-Zealand, where the master "disrated" the libellant, and shipped one — Fox, a cooper, at a 1-40 "lay." Fox remained on board about a year.

Held, this is an issue of fact upon evidence very conflicting. My result may surprise both parties. I am not satisfied that the master gave DONAHAY a "fair trial" within the meaning of the articles, but this is not very important. As the articles provide that in case of a "disrating" the man shall receive the "lay his services merit," so that I must inquire as to the actual competency of the libellant.

I think the conflicting evidence may be reconciled by supposing the respondents' witnesses to refer to the cooper's acts during the early part of the voyage, and the libellant's to the latter part. In the latter part came the coopering of the oil more particularly, while at the beginning of the voyage the cooper occupies himself more with the line-tubs, boat-buckets and what is called "small work." He made some defective small work certainly, but it is not so clear that he could not attend to the substantial and heavy work of the ship. At the shipment he told frankly the ship agent that he did not know how to do "small work." It favors also the position of the libellant, that he was a New-Bedford man, and his qualifications were entirely open to inquiry and information before the contract of shipment was made. I am satisfied that the libellant acted honestly and with no intent to mislead. On the other hand, I think the

master acted honestly, though not on sufficient inquiry and trial, for the evidence indicates no inducement or provocation to disrate DONAHAY, and employ a more expensive cooper: I consider the evidence afforded by the act of the master as weighty, though not conclusive.

While Fox was on board it appears that DONAHAY worked with him, and after he left there was, until the return voyage, no one rated as cooper in the ship except DONAHAY. During this time the casks were well made and tight—though there is some doubt as to who made particular casks. Without re-stating the evidence, I am, upon the whole, of opinion that the libellant, after the practice and training of the first year, was a competent cooper, and that he was not so before.

I therefore allow him a 1-50 "lay" as cooper's assistant, up to the end of the fourteen months when Fox left, and for the residue of the voyage (eighteen months) I allow the lay fixed by the articles, (1-55,) with costs to the libellant.

Unless the counsel, upon taking time, can agree as to the amount to be decreed upon the above principles, the case will go to an assessor to report the particulars of the proceeds of the voyage, &c. T. M. STETSON, of New-Bedford, for the libellant; R. C. PITMAN, of New-Bedford, for respondents.

LIABILITIES OF OWNERS OF FOREIGN SHIPS.

Before United States Supreme Court, New-York.—March 15. Judge BETTS, sitting in Admiralty. BENJAMIN SUTHERLAND *vs.* THE BRIGANTINE LADY MAUNSEL.

This case came up on a libel by Mr. SAWYER to recover repairs and supplies, and involved a very important question of law as to the right of lien under the late decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States, whether ship-chandlers and others could recover for supplies furnished to a foreign vessel in any of our ports, when it was made to appear that the master or agent of the foreign owner had ample funds in the country to pay for such repairs and supplies. The case was heard at the January term, and briefly noticed in the papers. It was then contended by McMAHON, for the owners, that the agent here had sufficient funds to meet all such claims, and if the creditors did not use due diligence in finding them out, the libellants could not recover in this form of action against the owners.

Judge BETTS delivered an elaborate opinion, in which he says:—This vessel is arrested on a claim by a blacksmith for \$267 42, for materials and labor supplied for her repair. It is admitted that she is a foreign vessel and came to this port disabled, and that the iron and labor furnished at the libellant's shop, and put upon her, were necessary to enable her to complete her voyage home. On her arrival here she was consigned to a Mr. BULLEY, and a contract was made by the master with a shipwright named McMAHON for the repairs. The first question which arises, was the entire repairs independent and exclusive of the materials needed and the work of the blacksmith? The next point is, whether the libellant was a party employed, or whether the labor and material were purchased by his brother, under an agreement with McMAHON, as a subcontractor, or whether the libellant himself had any interest whatever in the contract? The next and most material point is, whether the libellant

acquired any lien on the vessel, as her owners possessed funds and credit to meet this or other demands? Had the libellant notice of this, or certain means of informing himself? This point is vital to the action.

Up to December, 1856, it was adopted and recognised as maritime law that a vessel in a foreign port, in want of supplies or repairs to render her fit for navigation, and obtaining them on credit, the owners were bound for the debt, the cardinal point being the necessity of the case, and whether the verdict was *bona fide*, or if the creditors set up a lien with knowledge that the master had funds sufficient to satisfy the debt. This was the maritime law of Europe until the last few years, when a most important modification was established. That in addition to the proof of the necessity of the vessel, there must be a proof of the necessity for a credit upon the vessel. The courts have declared this to be essential, and remark: "That circumstances of less pressing necessity for supplies or repairs, and an implied hypothecation of the vessel to procure them, will satisfy the rule, than a loan of money on bottomry for the like purpose."

Held by the Court.—That the power of the master to bind both vessel and owners for supplies and labor without imposing on the creditor the duty of further proofs; but when the condition of the credit exacted from the owners a recompense beyond the ordinary rate of interest, then no lien was allowed unless the usurers proved satisfactorily that the owners had not funds sufficient to satisfy the debt, and moreover that the debt, with its enhanced interest, was both subject to the condition that the vessel should perform her home voyage safely. As the testimony is clear that the owners of the vessel had ample credit and actual funds in the hands of Mr. BULLEY, and the libellant had implied notice thereof, the libel must be denied, with costs.

COLLISION IN THE HARBOR.

Before the Glasgow Sheriff's Court.

The bark WHITE SEA, of Boston, Captain EVANS, while proceeding down the River Clyde, on the 28th of August, in tow of a steamer and in charge of a pilot, carried away the chains of a ferry-boat and caused other damage, in all amounting to £20 16s. 3d. The ferry-boat was worked by two chains and steam-power; one of the chains was used for pulling and the other for guiding the boat, and were attached to separate capstans on one side and ring-bolts on the other. The two chains were thirty feet apart, and passed over wheels in the boat; where there was no strain on them they fell into the river about a fathom from the boat; that, when not used, they lie upon the bed of the river, as they were sixty feet longer than the breadth across. It was when the chains were on the bottom that the WHITE SEA ran foul of them, and caused the damage for which she was sued.

The court decided that the bark was not liable:—First, because she was in charge of a pilot; second, because the ferry-boat had no right to impede the navigation of the river by chains; and third, because the vessel was properly managed. On the other hand, if the WHITE SEA had sustained any damage, the owners of the ferry-boat would have been liable for the consequences.

MARINE POLICY.—USAGE.—OPEN POLICY.

Before the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts.

A policy of insurance, by which an insurance company caused a party, for whom it may concern, to be insured, lost or not lost, fifteen thousand dollars on property on board vessel or vessels, steamboat or steamboats, or land carriage, at and from ports or places to ports or places—"All sums at risk under this policy to be endorsed hereupon, and valued at the sum endorsed"—"Premium, such per cent. as shall be written against each endorsement," is not specific enough in its terms to be a valid open policy, and to compel the insurers to make an endorsement after the goods are known to be lost.

Such a policy is merely an inchoate contract, about which matters material to its consummation are to be settled by the parties before each endorsement, and may properly be considered a new and separate insurance on each successive parcel of goods as they are endorsed on the policy, and at a rate of premium agreed upon at the time, written against each endorsement. Evidence as to usage in respect to running policies that the premium is to be at the market rate cannot be admitted where the provisions of the policy are such as these. When a policy is upon a specified kind of goods, to be brought in a certain kind of ships, within a stated time, from a certain port named, and with a rate of premium fixed, leaving nothing but the quantity and value of the goods to be declared and endorsed on the policy as invoices may be received, is legal in effect, as embracing any such goods as might be lost, and known to be lost before they were endorsed on the policy. *JAMES HARTSHORNE, Jr., et al. vs. SHOE AND LEATHER DEALERS' INSURANCE COMPANY.*—*Law Reporter, Boston.*

LIABILITIES OF SHIP-OWNERS.

Before the Supreme Judicial Court for the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.—January Term, 1860.

By the common law, owners of vessels are responsible to other persons for injuries to their property, resulting from the tortious acts of the master or mariners, to the full extent of the damage thereby occasioned. The act of Congress of 1851, ch. 43, (9 *Stat. at Large*, 635,) does not vary this liability of ship-owners, except as to the amount of compensation which may be recovered of them. Part-owners are under the same joint responsibility as at the common law. The ship and freight are to be estimated at their value immediately before the tortious act committed. In the assessment of damages, no deduction will be made from the value of the ship on account of a pre-existing incumbrance upon it. *ANDREW SPRING, et al. vs. THOMAS H. HASKELL, et al.*—*Law Reporter, Boston.*

MARITIME LAW.

Before the District Court of the United States, District of Massachusetts.—In Admiralty.—February, 1861.

The mate and engineer of an enrolled steamer, employed in towing vessels in and about the harbor of Boston, have a maritime lien upon the steamer for their wages. Such lien extends to the boiler, notwithstanding

the claim of the makers, who put it into the steamer under an agreement that it should continue their property until paid for, with a right to remove it should any instalment be overdue, and instalments are unpaid and overdue. The lien of the seamen is not impaired by knowledge of such agreement. The steamer *May Queen*, *McKAY et al.*, claimants.—*Law Reporter, Boston.*

COLLISION.—CHANGE IN THE RULE OF DAMAGES.

Before the United States District Court for New-York.

The rule of general law which gave damages for a collision to the full amount of the injury is superseded by the statute of 1851, which limits the recovery to the amount of the interest of the owners in the colliding vessel and her freight pending at the time of the collision, and the power of the court to award greater damage is abolished by positive law. *COOK vs. MALLORY.*

COLLISION AT SEA.—ACCIDENT.—LIABILITY OF OWNER.

Before the British Admiralty Court, London, March 4, 1861. Before *Dr. LUSHINGTON* and *TRINITY MASTERS*.—Case of the *DIANA*.—Collision.

This was an action brought by the owners of the bark *CLARA WILSNACH*, of Rostock, in Mecklenburg, against the screw steamer *DIANA*, of Hull, of 292 tons, to recover compensation for the damage sustained by a collision which happened between the vessels in Grimsby Roads on the evening of the 27th of February, 1860. The bark was bound to Varna with a cargo of coals from Grimsby, and was towed out of the dock in charge of a licensed pilot, and afterwards brought up in Grimsby Roads. The steamship was on a fishing voyage from Hull to Greenland, and came into Grimsby Roads on the day of the collision, in charge of a Hull pilot.

The plaintiffs alleged that the *DIANA* came down the Humber, and brought up astern of the bark within three ships' lengths of her, and that the steamer had plenty of room to choose a wide berth. The tide was then at ebb, and running to the southeast; the wind was blowing strongly from the northwest. On the afternoon the tide turned and set to the northwest, and the *CLARA WILSNACH* then swung with her stern to the southward, and cleared the *DIANA*, and rode athwart the tide with her head to the northeast and with her foretopmast staysail set. The *DIANA* began to swing with the tide with her foretopmast staysail set, and came stem on under the bark's foreyard on the starboard side, and with her jibboom injured the bark.

On the part of the plaintiffs it was contended that the collision was caused by the steamer giving the bark a foul berth. The defendants maintained that the blame was attributable to the *CLARA WILSNACH*, and that the steamer had, and was, by the Hull Pilot Act, compelled to have a duly qualified pilot on board, under whose direction the steamer was brought up and managed, and that by the 388th section of the Merchant Shipping Act they were not liable for the damage. There was a cross-action by the *DIANA* against the *WILSNACH*. *Dr. DEANE, Q. C.*, and *Mr. VERNON LUSHINGTON* were for the plaintiffs; and *Mr. T. RUTHERFORD* and *Mr. E. CLARKSON* for the *DIANA*.

His Lordship, in addressing the elder brethren, said that the questions at issue were entirely of a nautical character, and they only could determine them. Dr. LUSHINGTON, after conferring with the Trinity Masters, stated that they were of opinion that the *DIANA* was solely to blame, and that both the pilot and master were greatly to blame, and he decreed accordingly.

COLLISION AT SEA.—RIGHT OF WAY.

Before the British Admiralty Court, February 9, 1861. Before Dr. LUSHINGTON and TRINITY MASTERS.—Case of the bark *MERCK*.

This was an action brought by the owners of the ship *ACME*, of Glasgow, of 1,119 tons, against the bark *MERCK*, of Hamburg, of 320 tons, to recover compensation for the damage sustained by a collision between the vessels, which happened in the English Channel, between Portland Bill and the Start Point, on the morning of the 25th of September last. It was alleged by the plaintiffs that the *ACME* was on a voyage from Quebec to London, with a cargo of deals, and on the morning of the accident she was proceeding up the Channel, on the port tack, steering E. $\frac{1}{2}$, and going at the rate of about six knots an hour. She exhibited her regulation lights, but before the collision with the *MERCK* she had come in contact with another vessel, by which her port light was carried away, but the bowsprit light was substituted for it. A short time before the collision took place the *ACME* observed the red light of the *MERCK* nearly right ahead, and she ported her helm; soon afterwards the red light disappeared, and the bark's green light appeared two or three points on the *ACME*'s port bow, and the *MERCK*, with her stem, ran right into the *ACME*, striking her cutwater, carrying away her bowsprit, and causing considerable damage. The weather was dark and rainy. The plaintiffs attributed the collision to the *MERCK* having starboarded her helm. The *MERCK* was on a voyage from Hamburg to Rio Janeiro, with passengers and a general cargo. In proceeding through the Channel on the morning of the collision she had a green light exhibited on her starboard side and a red one on her port side. The *MERCK* observed the green light of the *ACME* at the distance of about half a mile, and at least three points on her starboard bow. The helm of the *MERCK* was then slightly starboarded, on the supposition that the *ACME* would pass well to her windward. After the helm had been put to starboard the red light of the *ACME* came in sight broad off the bark's starboard beam, and that vessel ran stem on into the *MERCK*'s starboard side amidships, causing her great damage. The injury done was so great that the passengers and crew were taken on board the *ACME*, and the *MERCK* was afterwards towed into Portsmouth. The *MERCK* denied the allegation of the plaintiffs that she with her stem struck the cutwater or any other part of the *ACME*. The defendants contended that the collision was caused by the *ACME* attempting to cross the bows of the *MERCK*, instead of passing to windward of her.

Dr. TWISS, Q. C., and Mr. VERNON LUSHINGTON were for the plaintiffs; and Dr. DEANE, Q. C., and Dr. WAMBEY for the *MERCK*. There was a cross-action at the instance of the *MERCK*.

The judge, in addressing the Trinity Masters, said that the question

they had to consider was whether, assuming the statements of the *MERCK* to be correct, that vessel was justified in starboarding, instead of porting her helm at the time she did. His Lordship and the Trinity Masters were of opinion that, in the circumstances, the *MERCK* was justified in starboarding, and that the blame of the collision rested entirely with the *ACME*. Decree was pronounced accordingly.

DAMAGES FOR DETENTION.

In January, 1861, the French Tribunal of Commerce gave a decision of interest to travellers. An advocate of Paris, named HUBBARD, had occasion, in February last, to go to Madrid on business, and he afterwards proceeded to Alicante to take the steamer of the Messageries Impériales for Marseilles, which was advertised to leave at noon of the 17th of the month. But on presenting himself at the office of the company in the morning of that day, he learned that the steamer had left on the previous evening, and he had to remain six days in the town before he could get a passage to Marseilles. For the loss of time, the inconvenience and the expense thus occasioned, he called on the Tribunal to condemn the company of the Messageries to pay him 2,000 francs. The company represented that it had been obliged suddenly to modify the times of departure in obedience to orders from the Minister of War, and consequently that it was not responsible. The Tribunal, however, held that the company was bound to advertise the modification, and condemned it to pay the plaintiff 200 francs and costs.

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Before the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts.

An author has at common law a property in his unpublished works which he may assign, and in the enjoyment of which equity will protect his assignee as well as himself. This property continues until, by publication, a right to its use has been conferred upon or dedicated to the public. The sole proprietorship of an author's manuscript and of its incorporeal contents, wherever copies exist, is, independently of legislation, in himself and his assigns, until he publishes it. An unqualified publication, such as is made by printing and offering copies for sale, dedicates the contents to the public, except so far as protection is continued by the statutes of copyright.

But there may be a limited publication, by communication of the contents of the work by reading, representation or restricted private circulation, which will not abridge the right of the author to the control of his work, any further than necessarily results from the nature and extent of this limited use which he has made, or allowed to be made of it. In the absence of legislation, when a literary proprietor has made a publication in any mode not restricted by any condition, other persons acquire unlimited rights of republishing in any modes in which his publication may enable them to republish. The representation of a dramatic work, of which the proprietor has no copyright, and which he had previously caused to be publicly exhibited for money, is no violation of any right of property, although done without license from such proprietor, and not being done in violation of any contract or trust, cannot be restrained by injunction.—*LAURA KEENE vs. MOSES KIMBALL.*

LIABILITY OF SHIP-OWNERS.

Before the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts. January Term, 1861.

In Massachusetts, it is the well-established law that underwriters insuring vessels against perils of the sea, are bound to reimburse to the assured the amount which he has been obliged to pay the owners of another vessel for damages to such vessel suffered in a collision with his own, caused by the master or mariners of his own vessel. By the common law, the whole damage in such cases, though it infinitely exceed the value of the ship and freight, may be recovered of the owner of the vessel in fault; but no such liability extends to the person or persons who are owners of the freight merely. This common law liability is not changed by the act of Congress of 1851, ch. 43, (9 *Stat. at Large*, 635,) limiting the liability of ship-owners. This act creates no new liability. Its effect is merely to limit the liability of those who were previously liable for the tortious acts of the master, mariners and passengers on board their vessel.

The privilege given by the statute to the ship-owner to exonerate himself from individual liability and to cause legal proceedings against himself to cease, by the surrender and transfer of the ship and freight, is not given to one who is responsible for damages resulting from collision, but is strictly confined to cases in which freighters, or other owners of property, have sustained losses in consequence of its embezzlement or destruction by the master, mariners or passengers on board the ship. Therefore, when there has been a collision, and the owner of the vessel in fault has paid the decreed damages, the amount so paid may be recovered by the owner of the vessel from his insurers, and should not be apportioned upon the aggregate value of the ship and freight. In such cases, the value of the vessel is to be estimated in the condition in which it was immediately before the occurrence of the collision. *HORTON D. WALKER vs. BOSTON INSURANCE COMPANY. SAME vs. HOPE INSURANCE COMPANY.—Law Reporter.*

THE STAY LAW OF MISSOURI.

The Supreme Court of Missouri has rendered an important decision on the constitutionality of the stay law recently passed by the legislature of that State. The question came up in the case of *BOXLEY vs. STEPHENS*, in which a judgment was rendered last October by the Supreme Court against the defendant for \$11,761 66. A portion of the sum had been paid without levy, and execution had issued for the remainder. Under these circumstances a motion was made to prohibit the sheriff to sell the property of the applicant, the motion being based upon the stay law, which provides that all executions issued at the time of its passage shall be returnable to the second term after the date of the writs, and that no real estate shall be sold within fifteen days of the return day. After citing former decisions of the Supreme Court of Missouri and the decisions of the United States Supreme Court bearing on the case, the court overruled the motion on the ground that in its application to past contracts, upon which judgment has been obtained and execution issued, the act is unconstitutional. The motion was, therefore, overruled.

COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL CITIES.

NO. LXXIX.—TORONTO, C. W.

THE business of the Canada cities during the past year has become more active in consequence of the large and favorable crops, which have enabled the discharge of the remaining obligations resulting from the revulsion of 1857, and have stimulated an increased business. This recovery manifests particularly the business of the city of Toronto, which enjoys great advantages in respect of the Western trade. The *Toronto Globe* remarks, that the grain crop of 1860 was the largest ever harvested in Canada. Not only of wheat was the yield large and of good sample, but all other grains were produced in much larger proportion than in any previous year. It so happened, for the Canada farmers fortunately, that from the time that the first load of the new grain was brought to market until the season of navigation closed, high prices were paid for every product sold. The abundance of the crop and the good prices which were realized induced large deliveries throughout the autumn, stimulated by the anticipated failure of the English crops. This activity of sales at high prices caused the amount of money in circulation in the country to increase from a little over ten millions of dollars, at the end of August, to nearly fifteen millions at the commencement of November—an increase of nearly five millions of dollars in sixty days. Eleven and a quarter millions was the highest point which the circulation reached during 1859, and ten and three quarter millions the highest in 1858. At no time in the history of Canada has the increase of the amount of money in circulation been so rapid as during the period first referred to; and it indicates with what animation the grain trade of the autumn was conducted, and the extent of the deliveries made by farmers.

The political events in the United States have caused, however, a great check upon the business operations. The circulation of the banks was put out upon Canada produce, that has, to some extent, failed to find a market, and lies unsold in New-York, dependent yet upon the turn the export trade may take. The actual grain business of Toronto in the past year has been as follows :

Quantity and Value of Flour reduced to Wheat, added to the other Grains.

	Bushels.		Value.
Wheat, in flour,.....	895,550	} at \$1 15,	\$2,397,712
Wheat, in grain,.....	1,192,417		
Barley,.....	234,144	at 60 c.	140,486
Peas,.....	148,826	at 50 c.	74,413
Oats, say.....	50,000	at 25 c.	12,500
Totals in 1860,.....	2,517,937		\$2,625,111
Totals in 1859,.....	1,340,723		1,434,017
Increase last year,.....	1,177,214		\$1,191,094

This shows a growth in the trade of nearly one hundred per cent.

We think it is no small cause for congratulation when the most important department of trade doubles itself within a twelvemonth.

The course of the market is well exhibited by the following table, which has been compiled from the books of buyers. It exhibits the average price of fall wheat in the Toronto market for every month during the past three years :

	1860.	1859.	1858.
January,.....	\$1 23	\$1 43	\$0 88
February,.....	1 24	1 57	0 87
March,.....	1 32	1 56	0 95
April,.....	1 42	1 52	0 97
May,.....	1 43	1 83	0 84
June,.....	1 27	1 63	0 84½
July,.....	1 17	1 26	0 86½
August,.....	1 22	1 08	1 15
September,.....	1 28	1 02	1 12½
October,.....	1 29	1 19	1 16
November,.....	1 20	1 19	1 16
December,.....	1 10	1 20	1 14

It will be seen by the above table that the highest point touched was in May and the lowest in December. A comparison of the average rates for each year is interesting.

The destination of the shipments for the past year has been as follows :

Entire Shipments for the year 1860, from 1st January to 31st December.

Ports.	Flour. Barrels.	Wheat. Bushels.	Barley. Bushels.	Poss. Bushels.
Oswego,.....	24,212	514,108	172,394	22,159
Cape Vincent,.....	4,788	141,969	16,340	14,943
Rochester,.....	67,266
Ogdensburgh,.....	20,540	80,146
Montreal,.....	49,341	234,171	1,100	56,373
Quebec,.....	7,200	5,628	1,945
Other ports,.....	72,429	149,129	44,310	53,406
Total,.....	178,510	1,192,417	234,144	148,826

The course of the trade for the past four years, as well as the comparative increase, is given in the following, which exhibits shipments to the ports specified for 1858, 1859 and 1860 :

DESTINATION.	1860.		1859.		1858.	
	Flour.	Wheat.	Flour.	Wheat.	Flour.	Wheat.
Oswego,.....	24,212	514,108	16,037	580,200	15,160	257,068
Ogdensburgh, ..	20,540	80,146	19,247	109,353	8,596	100,156
Cape Vincent,...	4,788	141,961	1,448	145,249	893	103,261
Rochester,.....	67,266	87,993	1,992	31,604
Montreal,.....	49,341	234,171	29,310	13,370	79,845	67,557
Quebec,.....	7,200	5,628	1,955	8,778	9,270	11,010
Other ports,....	72,429	149,129	4,655	25,621	15,960	16,817
Total,.....	178,510	1,192,417	72,652	970,564	114,266	579,833

The following table, compiled first in 1845, from the books of buyers, and since regularly kept up, exhibits the highest price paid for fall, for fifteen years, from 1846 to 1860, inclusive. It will be seen by this statement that the highest price realized in the fifteen years was in June, 1855,

when \$2 35 was paid; and the lowest rate was in the months of October and November, 1851, when 61c. was the highest price paid :

YEARS.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1846,.....	\$ 1 05	\$ 1 05	\$ 1 04	\$ 0 91	\$ 1 05	\$ 0 85	\$ 0 95	\$ 0 75	\$ 0 87	\$ 0 98	\$ 0 95	\$ 0 93
1847,.....	0 91	0 92	1 06	1 06	1 16	1 52	1 04	0 98	0 85	0 98	0 82	0 86
1848,.....	0 81	0 82	0 87	0 91	0 91	0 90	0 89	0 87	0 85	0 77	0 83	0 85
1849,.....	0 98	0 90	0 90	0 87	0 90	0 90	0 88	0 87	0 85	0 77	0 83	0 85
1850,.....	0 84	0 88	0 87	0 92	1 05	1 10	1 05	0 82	0 87	0 78	0 77	0 77
1851,.....	0 82	0 82	0 80	0 82	0 82	0 78	0 80	0 77	0 70	0 61	0 61	0 70
1852,.....	0 87	0 80	0 75	0 70	0 70	0 67	0 78	0 77	0 77	0 75	0 77	0 90
1853,.....	0 90	0 83	0 87	0 87	0 90	0 95	0 94	1 00	1 10	1 23	1 27	1 17
1854,.....	1 43	1 50	1 50	1 52	1 73	1 92	1 60	1 60	1 67	1 56	1 75	1 65
1855,.....	1 60	1 60	1 91	2 22	2 30	2 85	2 10	2 00	1 90	2 10	2 11	2 00
1856,.....	1 80	1 50	1 40	1 52	1 52	1 78	1 50	1 50	1 50	1 48	1 35	1 30
1857,.....	1 80	1 45	1 35	1 44	1 84	1 92	1 81	1 80	1 19	1 93	1 09	0 90
1858,.....	0 87	0 92	1 00	1 01	0 90	0 92	1 02	1 25	1 27	1 20	1 23	1 05
1859,.....	1 60	1 70	1 60	1 62	1 98	1 87	1 50	1 12	1 06	1 19	1 32	1 29
1860,.....	1 25	1 29	1 42	1 50	1 47	1 40	1 34	1 24	1 39	1 33	1 27	1 14

There are now in operation at Toronto seven or eight establishments for the packing of pork, and their reputation for salting, packing and curing is increasing. The lumber trade during the past year has been prosperous.

In addition to the lumber business, a very large amount of square timber was got out of the country north of this city during the winter months, and shipped hence by the Northern Railway. It was here made into rafts and towed down the St. Lawrence to Quebec, and shipped thence to England. Of the magnificent timber found on the shore of Lake Huron, there were last year exhibited some of the finest samples ever sent to the English market. That the trade was a profitable one, is pretty well indicated by the fact that a still larger amount is now being got out of the woods all along the line of the Northern Road. The amount of timber brought down during last spring is roughly estimated at eighteen million feet, board measure, or one and a half million feet cubic measure. The following table shows the monthly receipts of both lumber and timber, by the Northern Railway. It was impossible to separate the two items, and they are, consequently, given together in board measure :

Monthly Receipts, at Toronto, of Lumber and Timber by the Northern Rail-Road, for 1860.

January,.....	744,000	August,.....	4,038,600
February,.....	1,392,000	September,.....	2,311,000
March,.....	4,800,600	October,.....	2,304,000
April,.....	5,202,360	November,.....	930,000
May,.....	6,204,300	December,.....	334,100
June,.....	4,316,000		
July,.....	4,354,820	Total feet,.....	36,931,780

There has also been more than the usual activity in the manufacture of sawn shingles, the shipments of which amount to about 156,000.

The value of lumber and timber shipped for the year is estimated as follows :

Lumber, eighteen million feet,.....	\$ 200,000
Timber, eighteen million feet,.....	225,000
Shingles, 156,000,.....	312

Total value of shipments,..... \$ 425,312

This exceeds, to a very large extent, the amount shipped in last year, or in any two years previous, and we may congratulate those in Canada interested in this important trade on the success of the season, so far as they were concerned.

The prosperous state of the crop markets during the year affords a basis for the considerable expansion of the banks of Canada, as is manifest in the following table:

BANKS OF CANADA.					
1860.	Capital.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
January 31,	\$23,096,597	\$41,832,011	\$3,134,259	\$10,660,770	\$12,853,440
Feb. 29,	23,929,433	41,589,369	3,227,271	10,547,073	13,077,663
March 31,	34,095,998	41,797,305	2,963,758	10,411,868	13,161,736
April 30,	24,141,044	41,250,858	3,556,428	9,921,898	14,159,773
May 31,	24,308,197	40,422,275	4,356,679	9,478,440	15,195,901
June 30,	24,401,062	30,608,290	4,531,337	9,769,304	15,956,922
July 31,	25,383,303	40,041,080	4,863,998	10,328,244	15,828,588
August 31,	25,449,126	42,764,821	4,625,516	10,739,934	15,848,991
Sept. 30,	25,527,439	41,803,711	4,661,424	12,998,388	15,633,800
October 31,	25,605,627	43,002,202	5,006,562	14,756,242	16,969,502
Nov. 30,	25,634,924	44,111,584	5,012,129	13,642,576	17,204,612
Dec. 31,	25,669,719	44,280,744	4,348,566	12,532,298	16,024,705

The loans and circulation took a very decided expansion, and a movement that could not but promote a fair import trade, the promise of which was clouded by the turn of political affairs in the United States. The dry goods importations of Toronto were, as compared with those of the three previous years, as follows:

	1860.	1859.	1858.	1857.
Cottons,	\$ 826,433	\$ 771,476	\$ 483,612	\$ 918,752
Carpets,	13,831	16,741	8,087	75,964
Clothing,	10,394	13,192	19,427	48,968
Cotton yarn and warp,...	21,842	19,438	18,298	12,320
Hosiery,	6,882	2,338	6,778	6,980
Linens,	58,707	47,329	30,638	59,784
Millinery,	48,314	38,943	14,764	35,548
Oil cloths,	5,485	4,090	3,562	3,636
Silks and satins,	1,352	1,388	2,106
Velvets,	189,165	195,984	127,061	253,108
Small wares,	15,714	12,701	27,745	32,860
Straw goods,	32,785	25,985	17,861	35,348
Woollens,	573,067	525,920	402,877	651,988
Hats, caps and bonnets, ..	42,669	31,995	21,386
Totals,	\$ 1,846,150	\$ 1,708,518	\$ 1,182,086	\$ 2,100,600

This shows an increase last year over 1859 of \$134,088, and over 1858 of \$653,930, and compared with 1857, a falling off of \$243,144. The increase in the imports of dry goods last year over those of 1859, \$134,000, is not nearly as large as might be expected in view of the increased extent of trade done during the year. But the reader must remember, that it was only in the fall months that the business was at all pushed, and the above increase must be attributed to the importations for the fall trade entirely. Had the business been as brisk throughout the year as during the three months after harvest, or had the spring been at all an average one, the importations would have shown a much greater increase.

The following are the comparative imports of the leading articles of the grocery trade for the past four years:

	1860. Value.	1859. Value.	1858. Value.	1857. Value.
Ale, beer and porter,.....	\$ 462 ..	\$ 1,101 ..	\$ 238 ..	\$ 880
Blacking,	361 ..	97 ..	75 ..	40
Brandy,	1,244 ..	1,157 ..	8,432 ..	5,737
Candles, other than tallow,..	2,828 ..	350 ..	657 ..	5,336
Segars,.....	2,327 ..	1,520 ..	4,521 ..	5,000
Chicory,.....	207 ..	947 ..	112
Coffee, green,.....	22,058 ..	52,282 ..	52,695 ..	34,000
" ground or roasted,...	4 ..	30
Cocoa and chocolate,.....	477 ..	310 ..	138 ..	672
Cider,	193 ..	417 ..	242 ..	356
Corks,	1,957 ..	2,162 ..	2,437 ..	1,264
Cordials,	25 ..	53 ..	7 ..	242
Dried fruits and nuts, all kinds,	33,582 ..	17,961 ..	21,569 ..	16,216
Fish of all kinds,.....	7,500 ..	1,382 ..	3,904 ..	5,212
Gin,.....	178 ..	589 ..	2,251 ..	1,076
Molasses,	5,028 ..	9,310 ..	10,468 ..	10,208
Maccaroni, &c.,.....	28 ..	46 ..	48 ..	104
Mustard,.....	817 ..	1,135 ..	152 ..	1,300
Oil, any way rectified,.....	14,182 ..	30,778 ..	33,843 ..	18,152
Oil, fish, crude,.....	50,121 ..	23,037 ..	972 ..	29,872
Oils, cocoa, pine and palm,..	6,774 ..	13,467 ..	7,792 ..	6,082
Paints and colors,.....	15,359 ..	15,139 ..	18,227 ..	34,556
Pickles and sauces,.....	368 ..	124 ..	169 ..	4,852
Pitch and tar,.....	1,163 ..	751 ..	726 ..	884
Rice,.....	4,584 ..	3,002 ..	4,487 ..	6,868
Resin and rosin,.....	4,696 ..	5,107 ..	3,342 ..	1,136
Rum,.....	377 ..	427 ..	322 ..	668
Salt,.....	31,229 ..	24,389 ..	46,425 ..	30,404
Snuff,.....	295 ..	377 ..	488 ..	1,744
Soap,.....	3,608 ..	1,694 ..	607 ..	2,180
Spices of all kinds,.....	6,366 ..	6,578 ..	5,556 ..	3,028
Starch, &c.,.....	7,979 ..	6,827 ..	2,541 ..	1,964
Sugars, raw,.....	199,947 ..	149,058 ..	207,593 ..	244,672
" refined, or equal to,..	1,379 ..	13,653 ..	23,009 ..	11,336
Tallow,.....	53,347 ..	41,598 ..	57,892 ..	70,724
Teas,	159,572 ..	330,018 ..	330,763 ..	210,386
Tobacco, manufactured,.....	80,376 ..	81,320 ..	94,742 ..	70,092
" unmanufactured,...	10,168 ..	18,288 ..	21,321 ..	16,072
Tobacco pipes,.....	1,785 ..	1,557 ..	56
Turpentine,	6,631 ..	5,721 ..	127 ..	5,650
Vinegar,.....	1,349 ..	742 ..	1,299 ..	1,344
Wine, in wood,.....	10,329 ..	11,603 ..	35,635 ..	28,924
" in bottles,.....	3,914 ..	5,207 ..	7,957 ..	8,204
Whiskey,	435 ..	350 ..	2,671 ..	4,472
	\$ 735,440	\$ 882,504	\$ 1,060,468	\$ 901,737

The grocery branch of business has also been increased, and the results satisfactory, although the aggregate presents a decline, which arises solely from the decrease in tea and coffee, and must be accounted for by the fact that very extensive importations of coffee were made prior to the enforcement of the new tariff, in order to avoid the increased duty; while for teas, the anticipated advance in prices during the fall of 1859, and the low rates which were then prevailing, induced large purchases just before the close of last year, which stocked the market, so that the spring importations were unusually light. This circumstance, with considerable

purchases of the direct importations from China at Montreal, and the diminished consumption above alluded to, will explain the apparent decrease in the extent of the trade in these articles.

There has been, also, a fair business in the hardware trade. The following table exhibits the imports at Toronto of the principal articles for the past three years:

	1860.	1859.	1858.
Iron, Canada, and tin plates,	\$ 18,620 ..	\$ 11,321 ..	\$ 3,290
“ galvanized and sheet,	2,691 ..	2,638 ..	490
“ wire, nail and spike rod,	2,926 ..	1,703 ..	1,620
“ bar, rod or hoop,	27,957 ..	36,932 ..	35,044
“ boiler plate,	511 ..	821 ..	1,954
Steel, wrought or cast,	5,106 ..	4,922 ..	1,749
Tin, granulated or bar,	238 ..	382 ..	5,067
Zinc, in sheet,	27 ..	683 ..	1,257
Brass, in bars, rods and sheets,	207 ..	982 ..	1,006
“ or copper wire,	506 ..	835 ..	231
Copper in sheets, &c.,	4,411 ..	3,472
“ brass or iron tubing,	5,437 ..	7,837 ..	1,324
Tin and zinc in pigs,	2,963 ..	2,498 ..	1,468
Pig iron, lead and copper,	10,793 ..	1,372
Cordage,	5,238 ..	6,231 ..	7,443
Cutlery,	16,443 ..	13,415 ..	5,526
Japanned and Britannia ware,	2,399 ..	1,799 ..	1,262
Spades and other implements,	3,069 ..	7,888 ..	3,512
Spikes, nails, &c.,	10,667 ..	12,832 ..	4,103
Stoves and iron castings,	9,693 ..	11,249 ..	14,771
Manufactures of hardware, iron, brass or copper,	105,667 ..	99,111
Other iron and hardware,	111,460 ..	91,783

The other branches of Toronto trade present more or less the same features. The leather trade enjoys some advantages. Under the tariff of 1857, hides were charged 5 per cent. in the United States, but imported into New-York they pass from the warehouse free into Canada. Nevertheless, there appears to have been no increase of business in the past year. This, together with the decrease in the importations of boots and shoes, is ascribed to the growth of the home trade.

The aggregate imports for the past nine years is interesting.

Statement of Imports and Duties at Toronto from 1852 to 1860, inclusive.

	Value.	Duty.	Inland.
1860,	\$ 4,048,458	\$ 648,991	\$ 225,736
1859,	4,018,479	588,511	146,977
1858,	3,768,934	461,148	204,441
1857,	5,085,460	578,912	463,180
1856,	6,954,628	760,640
1855,	5,605,812	620,340
1854,	5,450,824	690,304
1853,	4,660,224	624,152
1852,	2,557,268	373,232

The number of steamboats trading to the port of Toronto, during 1860, was 32, of 10,147 tons, and 673 hands. The sailing tonnage was 22,260, and 896 hands.

Although navigation opened with low rates, still a small profit was returned to the owners of vessels until September, when the abundant harvest began to crowd the storehouses and depots, and freights rose rapidly, and at the close of navigation the losses of two bad seasons had

been, in nearly all instances, made good, and a margin left besides. During the summer, wheat was carried to Oswego for 1½c. per bushel; after the harvest it rose to 5c. @ 5½c. Flour to Montreal was carried as low as 15c. per barrel. In October, 45c. was the current rate, and several steamers obtained 50c. for a short time. A larger number of vessels are being rebuilt to replace, in a measure, those lost during the severe gales of last November. Mr. G. H. WYATT, ship broker, reports only three new vessels building on the lake, viz: One at Oakville, owned by HENDERSEN & COLPOYS, 10,000 bushels; one at Wellington Square, owned by McCULLOCH & BAXTER, 11,000 bushels; one at St. Catharines, owned by L. SHICKALUNA, 18,000 bushels. A passenger and freight steamer is also being built on lake Simcoe to replace the steamer Morung.

The passenger business has been divided between the Express line with the mail steamers, and the American steamers on the South shore. The monopoly tried by the Grand Trunk in securing seven of the best passenger steamers by charter, has not proved satisfactory in a pecuniary way, as it is generally known that the steamers made little more than their expenses, leaving the charter money, £35,000, to be provided for. The freight line of steamers has also shared in the improvement of the lake business, and first-class steamers have made very handsome profits. Some of the largest propellers made several trips between Chicago and Montreal, carrying very large freights.

CANADA.

The trade of the whole of Canada was as follows:

	Exports.		Imports.		Duties.
Total, 1860,.....	\$ 34,631,890 ..		\$ 34,441,621 ..		\$ 4,758,465
In 1859,.....	24,766,981 ..		33,555,161 ..		4,437,846
Increase in favor of 1860,.....	\$ 9,864,900 ..		\$ 886,400 ..		\$ 320,619

A few of the chief articles of import, and their value, are given in the next table.

	Quantity.	Value.		Value.
Sugar, refined, lbs.	600,788	\$ 48,318	Linen,.....	\$ 261,824
" other kinds,	31,712,252	1,537,978	Woolens,.....	3,954,066
Tea,.....	3,734,014	1,271,461	Leather, tanned,.....	287,199
Coffee, green,.....	778,789	107,954	Manufactured boots and shoes,	119,927
" other,.....	15,004	2,035	" other than boots	
Cottons,.....		5,750,297	and shoes,.....	124,962

One cannot but remark upon the great value of many manufactured articles; of boots and shoes, \$119,927, and of all kinds of manufactured leather, \$532,000; of hats, caps and bonnets, \$326,420; of clothes, ready-made, \$118,000; paper and paper hangings, \$107,000; starch, \$33,500. Such items show the scope there is for home manufactures. Of cottons we imported \$5,750,297 worth in 1860.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

NEW LIGHT-HOUSES IN EUROPE.

NAME.	Place.	Position.	F. or R.	Ht. in Feet.	Dist. seen Mls.	Remarks, &c. [Bearings Magnetic.]
35. Cape St. George.	Australia, east coast.	35° 9.3' S., 150° 4.1' E.	R.	224	19	Established 1st Oct., '60. (a.)
36. Civita Vecchia.	Italy, west coast, Mediterranean.	45° 5.4' N., 11° 47.1' E.	R.	120	16	(b.)
37. Corran Point.	Scotland, W. coast.	F.	36	10	Est. 20th Nov., '60. (c.)
38. Adour River.	On southern pier.	43° 31.9' N., 1° 31.4' W.,	F.	38	6	Est. 15th Nov., '60.
38. Pladda Island.	Scotland, W. coast.	F.	42	11	Est. 20th Nov., '60. On west side of Isle Luing.
39. Cape St. Elias.	Gulf Cagliari, Sardinia.	39° 11' N., 9° 9.3' E.,	Ff.	289	14	Est. 4th Nov., '60. A red flash every two minutes.
40. Cape Kusten-Jeh.	Black Sea.	44° 10' N., 28° 39.2' E.,	F.	68	9	Est. 1st Nov., '60.
41. Favignana Island.	Sicily, west coast.	37° 55.8' N., 12° 16.1' E.,	R.	141	20	Est. 24th Dec., '60. Interval once a minute. On Sottile or Mamoni Point.
42. Buffalo River.	South side of entrance.	F.	45	11	Est. 25th Aug., '60. Tower, red and white bands.
43. Mewstone Buoy.	Entrance of Plymouth Sound.	(d.)
1. Port Said.	Egypt.	31° 4' N., 32° 19.5' E.,	F.	66	9	S. E. 29 miles of Damietta, mouth of the Nile.
1. Port Said.	Egypt.	31° 4' N., 32° 19.5' E.,	F.	66	9	Est. recently.
2. Kronstat.	Baltic.	Alterations of the lights. (e.)
3. Gulf of Elga.	Beacons in. (f.)
4. Brindisi, on Pedagne Rocks.	Adriatic.	40° 39.5' N., 17° 50.5' E.,	Ff.	72	13	Est. 31st Jan., '61. Flash once in 3 minutes. A short eclipse precedes and follows the light.
4. On Point Torre de Penne.	Adriatic.	40° 41.1' N., 17° 56.3' E.,	R.	129	20	Est. 31st Jan., '61. Once every half minute.

F. Fixed. Ff. Fixed and Flashing. R. Revolving. I. Intermitting. Est. Established.

(a.) 35.—The notice says that the light shows consecutively a *red*, *green* and *white* light, at intervals of *thirty seconds*. It is visible seaward when bearing between S. S. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W. and North. It is seen as far as N. by E. $\frac{3}{4}$ E. over a sloping hill situated south of the light-house; but then a vessel must be a considerable distance to the southward of it. In entering Jervis Bay the light will be eclipsed by Bowen Island, forming the south point of entrance, when bearing S. $\frac{1}{2}$ W., and it will only be visible from a portion of the bay, between the bearings of S. S. E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. and S. E. The white light will be seen in clear weather at a distance of about nineteen miles, and the green and red lights at fourteen miles.

Directions.—Vessels approaching Cape St. George from the southward should always endeavor to make this light, to avoid being embayed in Wreck Bay, the deep indentation westward of the cape. The light will first open over the sloping hill to the southward of it, bearing N. b. E. $\frac{3}{4}$ E.

The cape, which is a low, dangerous, rocky point, must be approached cautiously. When within the distance of about eight miles the light should not be brought to the northward of N. b. W.; for if the vessel should be near the land, to the southwestward of this bearing, the light will be partially, if not wholly obscured, but by standing to the eastward it will gradually open out, and when bearing N. N. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W. it may be passed with safety at a distance of from one to two miles.

In approaching from the northward, the light will open off Crocodile Head, bearing S. S. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W., and by keeping it in sight a vessel will pass the head in safety at a distance of from one to two miles.

(b.) 36.—It is visible seaward between the bearings of N. b. W. $\frac{3}{4}$ W. and S. b. E. $\frac{3}{4}$ E., at a distance of about sixteen miles. The eclipses are total beyond the distance of ten miles, but within that range a faint light will always be seen.

Re-establishment of Lights.—The Maritime Inspector of Venice has given notice, that on the 17th October, 1860, the illumination of all the light-houses on the Venetian coast would be re-established.

(c.) 37.—The light will show *red* to the eastward and southward, between the bearings of N. E. b. E. and S. W. b. W. $\frac{3}{4}$ W. nearly, and *white* in every other direction where it can be seen from Loch Eil and Loch Linnhe.

Fixed Light on Phladda Islet.—Also a light will be exhibited from the light-house erected on Phladda Islet, about a mile from the west side of Luing Island, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles S. W. from Easdale Island, Argyleshire.

The light will show *red* when seen from the northward, or in the direction of the Bogha Nuadh Rock, when bearing between S. b. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W. and S. S. W. $\frac{3}{4}$ W.; it will show *white* landward when bearing between S. S. W. $\frac{3}{4}$ W. and N. N. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.; and it will be *masked* seaward between the bearings of N. N. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E. and S. b. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W. The mariner, however, must bear in mind that in approaching it from the southward a faint light will be seen easterly of N. N. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.

(d.) 43.—The buoy lies in $7\frac{1}{4}$ fathoms at low water, with the peaks of the Great and Little Mewstones in line bearing E. N. E., and the S. W. end of Picklecombe Fort, in Mount Edgecumbe Park, touching the north side of the breakwater light-house, N. b. W. $\frac{3}{4}$ W.

The inner chequered buoy near the east end of the breakwater has been removed.

(e.) 2.—The Russian Imperial Ministry of Marine has given notice that the following alterations will be found in the lights of Kronstat, on the opening of the navigation in the spring of 1861:

The three *fixed* lights in the midst of the fort of the Emperor Paul I., or Risbank Fort, are to be discontinued.

The eastern light of the Nicholas Battery at Kronslot, that is 45 feet above the mean level of the sea, is to be raised to 58 feet above the same level, and should be visible from the deck of a ship, in clear weather, at a distance of 12 miles.

The western light, which is now 21 feet above the mean level of the sea, will be raised to 23 feet above the same level, but there will be no change in the horizontal range of these lights.

(f.) 3.—The Russian Imperial Ministry of Marine has given notice of the following changes in the beacons of the Gulf of Riga:

Two mast-beacons, to show the direction of the channel into Riga, are surmounted by a triangle with the apex upwards, and over it a small barrel. They are 85 and 87 feet high, and 478 yards apart, in a direction N. W. b. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W. The N. W. beacon is higher and its base larger than that of the S. E. beacon. They can be seen ten miles distant.

The lower light at Riga has been opened out 30° to the westward, so as to be seen from N. $\frac{1}{2}$ W. to N. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W.

The following beacons are to be in their places on the opening of the navigation in 1861:

A red broom, turned downwards, on the south side of the banks of Kuno, S. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ S. $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the church of St. Nicholas.

A red broom, turned downwards, at $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles south from the end of the Sorkholm Reef.

A black broom, turned downwards, on the coast of Livonia, on a nine feet shoal, S. W. b. W., 2 miles off Cape Taker-ort.

A double broom, red above and white below, on the eleven feet shoal W. b. N. $\frac{1}{2}$ N., 4 miles from the village of Kablukula.

A white broom, placed upright on the seventeen feet bank, N. W. b. N., $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the farm of Ainensch.

A double broom, white above and red below, on the end of the reef off the entrance of the River Att Salis, about $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the beach, in 26 feet water.

The bearings are magnetic. Variation at Riga, $8^{\circ} 15'$ W. in 1861.

ALTERATIONS IN FRENCH LIGHTS.

From the Moniteur de la Flotte.

Port of Cette Light—Change of Position.—Mariners are hereby informed that on the 15th of February the fixed light of the port of Cette will be removed to the tower recently completed at the mole-head of the port of St. Louis. The neighboring sea light of Fort Richelieu will be established at the same time at the S. W. angle of this fort, in a manner to show, with the light, the course for entering the port. The tower stands in lat. $43^{\circ} 23' 30''$ N. and long. $3^{\circ} 42' 4''$ W. The light is 82 feet above the ground and 105 feet above the sea, and may be seen 15 miles distant.

Light of Fort Richelieu.—Is 253 feet to the west of the light-house. Mean height 272 feet; distance seen, 4 miles. These two lights will appear to be one at the distance of about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles. They will be hereafter replaced by two lights; one of which will stand at the end of the jetty of Fontignan and the other at the end of the breakwater.

Light of Biarritz, Lower Pyrenees.—Navigators are hereby informed that the revolving light of Biarritz, about $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles S. S. W. of the mouth of the Adour, the eclipses of which are now every half minute, will be altered in the month of July next to every twenty seconds, and that the light will be alternately white and red. A temporary light of the same character as the intended light will be shown at the tower while the works are going forward, but that will not be visible so far off as they will be.

IANTHE SHOAL—CAROLINE ISLANDS.

The following extract from the log of the bark NILE, confirms the existence of the Ianthe Shoal; but the position given by the NILE, although agreeing in longitude, differs in latitude:

Bark NILE, DESTIN, reports: "Left for sea October 1st; had moderate weather down. February 8th, in lat. $5^{\circ} 31' N.$, long. $145^{\circ} 42' E.$, at 6.15 P. M., passed over a sunken reef, with very little room to spare, the rocks being plainly visible on each side of the vessel, and the man aloft reported breakers on one side. The bark was before the wind at the time, and was only two minutes between the rocks. She was heading in the sun glade, which prevented the earlier discovery of the danger."

As nothing is more likely than that this shoal may extend even thirty miles south of its latitude in the chart, which is so much to the northward of this, the mariner will be cautious in its vicinity.

GLENDINNING SHOAL.

The first account of this discovery, as given by that excellent paper, the *Shipping and Mercantile Gazette*, appeared in our last number. The following notice of it by the Hydrographic Office contains some further particulars worth preserving:

Captain GLENDINNING, of the bark QUEEN MAB, of Liverpool, reports that on his passage from Singapore to the Cape of Good Hope, on the 20th October last, in lat. $9^{\circ} 54' S.$, long. $97^{\circ} 50' E.$, he came upon a shoal not marked in any of the charts, and lying in the direct track of vessels coming from the Straits of Sunda, on their homeward voyage. Captain GLENDINNING states, that at 9 o'clock P. M. of the above date he observed the water all around the ship much discolored, in appearance milky white; that he immediately hove the ship up in the wind, had a cast of the hand lead, and got seven fathoms, but the next cast (having run about two miles W. S. W.) had no bottom with the hand lead. The water continuing discolored at eleven o'clock, having run ten miles further to the W. S. W., hove the ship to, and sounded with the deep sea lead in 55 fathoms, hard ground.

Caution.—This shoal lies about 130 miles N. N. E. of the Kneeling or Cocos Isles, and directly in the track of ships on the homeward voyage from China and Singapore, by the Straits of Sunda. As it is most desirable to verify the cast of seven fathoms and to ascertain how far the bank extends, any captain passing this neighborhood is requested to get a few deep sea casts of the lead, and, if time and circumstances will permit, to endeavor to trace the possible connection of the bank with the Cocos Isles. And we may also add, that as the deep sea lead will bear arming, that thereby the nature of the bottom might be ascertained—a very desirable and convincing particular, and one contributing much to the value of deep soundings.

Bearings are magnetic. Variation $0^{\circ} 15' W.$ in 1861.

DANGERS OF THE SEA OVERCOME.

Under provisions of the Naval Appropriation Bill the Secretary of the Navy has purchased, for \$10,000, the right to use "DAVIDSON'S Boat-

Lowering, Detaching and Attaching Apparatus," lately patented by Lieut. HUNTER DAVIDSON, of the U. S. Navy. This wonderful apparatus, by which a boat can be lowered with perfect safety at sea, under any and all circumstances, will now be offered to passenger steamers, and will no doubt soon come into general use, by which thousands of lives will be saved.

THE COMING OF STORMS.

In the month of March the coast of Great Britain and Ireland experienced a succession of gales which did much injury to life and property.

The *London Times*, in discussing the subject, remarks: "The event was predicted with as much certainty as an eclipse, and could have been announced by signals as conspicuous as fiery beacons. The information was actually telegraphed to several places. Aberdeen, Hull, Yarmouth, Dover, Liverpool, Valentia and Galway were apprised of the pending storm in the plainest terms. Notice was sent to those ports as follows: "Caution.—Gale threatening from the southwest, and then northward.—Show signal drum." Now, as all the points of our coast are connected by telegraphic wires, and as there can be no difficulty in showing signals of this description, we think it highly desirable that the system should be established without delay. The plan, though organized at the Board of Trade, is not yet, we are told, in full practical operation; but as the details, according to the delineation given, cannot involve much trouble or cost, the sooner the scheme is introduced the better.

"Meteorology now rests upon evidence as palpable as that which confirms our theory of astronomy. We believe those theories because the predictions of an astronomical almanac are infallibly verified. An eclipse occurs at the hour and minute set down for it, occultations and transits take place with similar punctuality, and as all things invariably happen according to programme, the truth of the principles on which the science is based becomes evident to all, whether learned or unlearned. We are now in exactly the same position as regards meteorology. We cannot yet forecast the general character of the season, but it seems that we can really foretell a gale three days before it comes, and even ascertain the quarter from which the wind will blow. If we have indeed got to this point—and there appears no reason to doubt it—the rest ought to be easy."

The elements for calculating the advent of a gale are more at command in the United States than elsewhere, since the development of the telegraph has been greater on this continent than on that of Europe. An area, embraced by 45 degrees of longitude and 24 degrees of latitude, is here operated upon by telegraph lines, and by these the indications of approaching tempests may be in an hour concentrated upon any point of the Atlantic coast. The approach of a gale may be anticipated from one to three days, and thus give time for preparations that will suffice to avert damage. The extended list of losses that the marine reports present for the past year are the proof of the great interest which commercial bodies have in this matter. The losses on the lakes during the past year were, in amount, \$1,156,015, an increase of 13 per cent. over the previous year. The science of storms might readily be applied to this as a remedy.

LOSSES ON THE LAKES.

The annual report, presented by Capt. E. P. DORR, Chairman of the Executive Committee, to the Board of Lake Underwriters, shows that during 1860 there was a considerable increase in the losses of property over the year 1859, and that the increase in loss of life is truly fearful, although resulting from great and (apparently) unforeseen disasters:

1859.	
Loss on steam hulls,.....	\$ 169,405
Loss on steam cargoes,.....	182,130
Total loss by steam vessels,.....	\$ 351,535
Loss on sail hulls,.....	\$ 331,238
Loss on sail cargoes,.....	337,327
Total loss by sail vessels,.....	\$ 668,565
Total loss by steam and sail vessels,.....	\$ 1,020,100
Increase of losses,.....	135,915
1860.	
Loss of life in 1860,.....	578
Loss of life in 1859,.....	105
Increased loss of life,.....	473

Of the 578 lives lost during the past year, 400 are attributed to the disaster of the *LADY ELGIN*.

SCREW PROPELLERS.

The loss of screw propellers during the ten years of lake business shows, first, an increase of this kind of vessels, and second, the decrease in disasters as navigation has improved and knowledge of managing propellers has advanced. Many conclusions will suggest themselves to the underwriter and shipper who may examine the following tabular statement of the number and the losses in dollars:

YEARS.	Amount of Loss.	Wrecked.	Stranded.	Fire.	Damaged.	Jettison.	Collision.	Raised.
1848,.....	\$ 39,000	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
1849,.....	113,000	0	1	1	0	1	0	1
1850,.....	16,000	0	4	1	1	0	3	0
1851,.....	133,200	2	6	0	4	0	10	0
1852,.....	274,050	4	5	3	11	4	8	0
1853,.....	101,500	1	7	0	10	2	4	0
1854,.....	680,100	5	0	2	30	7	8	0
1855,.....	1,159,950	7	11	0	34	4	10	0
1856,.....	888,960	7	19	6	22	2	19	0
1857,.....	254,542	1	17	4	33	1	9	0
1858,.....	91,830	1	1	5	20	2	7	0
Total for ten years,.....		25	72	23	166	24	79	2
Total loss in dollars,.....								\$ 2,752,131
Total number of vessels,.....								402

THE TIME GUN AT EDINBURGH.

The *Scotsman* contains the following interesting sketch of the experiments for testing the best position of the signal gun, and the comparative

Lowering, Detaching and Attaching Apparatus," lately patented by Lieut. HUNTER DAVIDSON, of the U. S. Navy. This wonderful apparatus, by which a boat can be lowered with perfect safety at sea, under any and all circumstances, will now be offered to passenger steamers, and will no doubt soon come into general use, by which thousands of lives will be saved.

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1851,.....	133,200	.. 2	.. 6	.. 0	.. 4	.. 0	.. 10	.. 0
1852,.....	274,050	.. 4	.. 5	.. 3	.. 11	.. 4	.. 8	.. 0
1853,.....	101,500	.. 1	.. 7	.. 0	.. 10	.. 2	.. 4	.. 0
1854,.....	680,100	.. 5	.. 0	.. 2	.. 30	.. 7	.. 8	.. 0
1855,.....	1,159,959	.. 7	.. 11	.. 0	.. 34	.. 4	.. 10	.. 0
1856,.....	888,960	.. 7	.. 19	.. 6	.. 22	.. 2	.. 19	.. 0
1857,.....	254,542	.. 1	.. 17	.. 4	.. 33	.. 1	.. 9	.. 0
1858,.....	91,830	.. 1	.. 1	.. 5	.. 20	.. 2	.. 7	.. 0
Total for ten years,.....		28	72	23	166	24	79	2
Total loss in dollars,.....	\$ 2,752,131							
Total number of vessels,.....	402							

THE TIME GUN AT EDINBURGH.

The *Scotsman* contains the following interesting sketch of the experiments for testing the best position of the signal gun, and the comparative

range of audibility of various sizes of cannon and charges of powder, conducted in March, under the superintendence of Master-Gunner FINLAY. The discharges began at half-past 10 A. M., and were continued every hour till half-past 3 P. M. The first three shots of the six were fired from a twenty-four-pounder, close to the flagstaff on the Half-Moon Battery, and pointing in the direction of the Calton-hill, in order, as far as possible, to embrace equally within the range of its sound both the Old and New Town. The last three shots, beginning at half-past 1, were fired from an iron eighteen-pounder, on the Forewall Battery, five or six guns to the north of the flagstaff, but pointing nearly in the same direction as the other. The first shot from the twenty-four-pounder, with a charge of 6 lbs. of powder, was not only audible over the whole city, but, we learn, was distinctly heard by a gentlemen standing at the gate of Dalkeith Palace. The charge of the second shot, at half-past 11, was increased to 8 lbs., and the report in this case is stated to have been heard by another gentleman at Gallowshall-toll, in the vicinity of Dalkeith. It was also heard by numerous gentlemen in their own houses, at the extreme north of the New Town and at Newington, as well as by people in Leith, and it was the opinion of the gunners that it would likewise be easily heard in Burnt Island. In the third shot the 6 lbs. charge was reverted to. In the discharges from the eighteen-pounder only 4 lbs. of powder was used. The reports were sharp and clear, within a moderate distance; in some quarters of the city they were either heard very indistinctly or not heard at all. Probably the experiments made will suffice to decide as to the position and calibre of the gun to be used and the weight of the charge. Arrangements are, in the mean time, being made for connecting the gun with the Royal Observatory, on the Calton-hill, and the time-ball on NELSON'S Monument, by means of an electric wire, and for preparing the mechanism by which it is to be fired. Already an electric wire (by means of which constant communication is kept up between the Edinburgh Royal Observatory and that at Greenwich) has been carried over the side of the Calton-hill to the North British Railway, and an estimate is being prepared by the Electric Telegraph Company as to the expense of carrying an insulated wire from this point over the house-tops to the Castle. It is anticipated that every thing will be in working order within, at most, a month from this time, and that daily thereafter the inhabitants in every quarter of the city will be enabled, without leaving their houses, or the avocations in which they may chance to be engaged, to set their clocks and watches according to the correct Greenwich time. It is calculated that the annual cost of the audible time-signal will be altogether about £40. The sum already collected (chiefly through the exertions of Mr. HEWAT and other members of the Chamber of Commerce) is about £200, but as this will only carry on operations for a few years, and as government has not as yet bound itself to do more than grant the use of the gun, additional subscriptions are evidently desirable.

NIGHT SIGNALS.

The *London Times* of a late date remarks: Official instructions were recently received at Woolwich from the Lords of the Admiralty by Commodore Superintendent, the Hon. J. R. DRUMMOND, stating that the board had been

pleased to adopt as the authenticated night-signals of Her Majesty's ships of war for future use, WARD's patent signal telegraph lanterns, and that an order had been issued for a full supply, in sets, for the newly-appointed Rear-Admiral SMART's division of the Channel fleet, to be executed forthwith. Considerable pains have been taken by various members of the board, and also by Commodore DRUMMOND, during the past year, in investigating and improving the new signals, and bringing them to their present state of perfection; and all who have witnessed the series of experiments which has been carried out, and the progressive alterations introduced from time to time, are unanimous in their decision that no other change can add to their utility and value.

MARINE INSURANCE.

The following official despatch from the United States consul at Hamburg to the Department of State furnishes some interesting details respecting the practice of underwriters at that port:

"The premium charged on first class A No. 1 vessels is $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum; but underwriters here would refuse to take, at this rate, any American (United States) vessel, because they know that there are few hands on board who are thorough sailors, many of them never having been to sea before, and even their captains very often knowing nothing of seamanship, leaving the whole command in reality to the masters.

"Hamburg masters, as well as mates, have to undergo very strict examination before they are allowed to take command. The same is true of Denmark, Sweden and Prussia; their vessels are consequently considered by Hamburg underwriters just as good risks.

"The premium from Hamburg to New-York and home is, in the summer season, two per cent., and rises in the winter to three and a half per cent. All losses are paid in full; there is no deduction made of total loss. If total loss, the amount insured is paid within two months after the underwriter receives notice of the damage. On the cargo (hulk of the vessel) the adjuster of averages, a sworn city officer, deducts one-third for use, which is taken to be the betterment of the vessel.

"Any average, either particular or general, must rise to three per cent. to be recoverable; but Hamburg underwriters are bound to pay any foreign statement, correct, according to the laws of the port of destination. This is a great advantage to the insured over the English policies, which recognise only the statement made according to their own laws.

"Hamburg laws and customs, as to insurance, are looked upon as the best, and for this reason the greater part of Northern Europe, viz., Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Lubeck, Prussia, and even Russia, have adopted the major part of them, and many parties and companies in these countries sign their policies 'according to the Hamburg customs.' The underwriters of Hamburg sign their policies according to the 'recognised condition of the Hamburg insurances on maritime risks.' * * * * *

"The insurance business done in Hamburg is very considerable; seven hundred and fifty millions of marcs banco are insured annually. Two great advantages to the insured, contained in the Hamburg policies, not to be found in the English, are to be noted: *First*. The former cover the cargo from land to land, while the latter only cover from port to port. *Second*. The Hamburg policies cover losses arising from the negligence

or misdemeanors of the captain and crew, even when the destruction is caused by premeditated malice. Deeming this subject one of very great interest, and it being very desirable that the cause of the higher position held by Hamburg and Northern Europe vessels should be made known, the whole system of management here established for the masters, mates and sailors has been the object of a laborious examination on the part of government commissioners."

POSTAL STATISTICS.

POST OFFICE REVENUE BY STATES, 1859-1860.

We have compiled from authentic sources the following tables, giving interesting facts respecting the postal operations of the government during the last fiscal year ending June 30, 1860 :

<i>Free States.</i>	<i>Letter Postage.</i>	<i>Newspaper Postage.</i>	<i>Total Receipts.</i>	<i>Compensation to Postmasters.</i>	<i>Total Expenses.</i>	<i>Excess of Expenditures.</i>
Maine,....	\$13,673 ..	\$13,526 ..	\$166,671 ..	\$76,858 ..	\$199,205 ..	\$32,534
N. Hamp.,	3,839 ..	10,663 ..	111,076 ..	54,117 ..	109,411
Vermont, ..	4,087 ..	12,510 ..	106,772 ..	56,167 ..	128,408 ..	21,635
Mass.,	75,443 ..	27,489 ..	642,955 ..	164,747 ..	460,829
R. Island, ..	4,059 ..	3,745 ..	69,057 ..	16,452 ..	43,944
Conn.,	9,731 ..	15,855 ..	207,944 ..	75,992 ..	204,195
New-York,	273,451 ..	88,990 ..	1,681,139 ..	337,564 ..	1,170,230
N. Jersey, ..	15,245 ..	11,223 ..	139,757 ..	59,909 ..	155,304 ..	15,546
Penn.,	72,870 ..	54,507 ..	708,555 ..	196,400 ..	630,640
Michigan, ..	14,669 ..	10,123 ..	178,649 ..	75,163 ..	223,023 ..	44,240
Wisconsin, ..	18,218 ..	16,788 ..	183,783 ..	33,540 ..	576,017 ..	357,693
Illinois, ...	31,457 ..	37,300 ..	445,728 ..	185,725 ..	645,119 ..	199,390
Ohio,	34,659 ..	45,059 ..	532,259 ..	188,867 ..	812,729 ..	280,462
Indiana, ...	13,091 ..	26,500 ..	218,996 ..	101,194 ..	366,589 ..	149,592
Iowa,	9,647 ..	17,368 ..	141,902 ..	65,702 ..	265,690 ..	128,783
California, ..	57,993 ..	14,374 ..	286,218 ..	65,903 ..	1,061,161 ..	774,942
Oregon,	2,702 ..	1,957 ..	15,590 ..	7,337 ..	40,151 ..	24,660
Minnesota, ..	5,614 ..	4,539 ..	43,507 ..	20,942 ..	130,140 ..	86,632
Total, ...	\$660,448	\$418,516	\$5,879,559	\$1,762,321	\$7,233,777	\$2,109,014

TERRITORIES.

N. Mexico,	\$409 ..	\$238 ..	\$3,359 ..	\$1,671 ..	\$15,789 ..	\$19,148
Utah,	1,588 ..	247 ..	4,436 ..	2,238 ..	106,585 ..	102,149
Nebraska, ..	787 ..	959 ..	9,741 ..	5,480 ..	43,604 ..	33,763
Wash.,	1,211 ..	461 ..	5,150 ..	2,792 ..	42,600 ..	37,449
Kansas, ...	2,472 ..	2,781 ..	31,073 ..	14,640 ..	73,327 ..	42,253
Total,	\$6,467 ..	\$4,686 ..	\$53,759 ..	\$26,821 ..	\$285,164 ..	\$231,403
D. C.,	6,252 ..	3,245 ..	51,292 ..	4,025 ..	40,029

BORDER SLAVE STATES.

Delaware, ..	\$1,402 ..	\$2,184 ..	\$43,130 ..	\$9,281 ..	\$34,110
Maryland, ..	22,056 ..	11,492 ..	199,563 ..	36,233 ..	308,699 ..	109,135
Virginia, ..	11,454 ..	26,053 ..	275,269 ..	104,517 ..	530,608 ..	255,339
N. C.,	3,158 ..	12,187 ..	97,812 ..	45,415 ..	226,672 ..	128,859
Kentucky, ..	8,044 ..	15,686 ..	166,520 ..	60,614 ..	252,562 ..	196,042
Tenn.,	5,164 ..	14,689 ..	155,732 ..	52,555 ..	317,006 ..	161,278
Missouri, ..	24,525 ..	25,033 ..	253,824 ..	70,326 ..	680,538 ..	426,714
Arkansas, ..	2,615 ..	7,675 ..	52,620 ..	26,938 ..	342,428 ..	289,803

Total, \$78,418 \$114,999 \$1,149,470 \$405,889 \$2,802,623 \$1,567,170

CONFEDERATE STATES OR GULF SLAVE STATES.

	<i>Letter Postage.</i>	<i>Newspaper Postage.</i>	<i>Total Receipts.</i>	<i>Compensation to Postmasters.</i>	<i>Total Expenses.</i>	<i>Excess of Expendituree.</i>
S. C.,....	\$ 10,714 ..	\$ 8,584 ..	\$ 113,675 ..	\$ 32,419 ..	\$ 245,035 ..	\$ 140,409
Georgia, ..	7,786 ..	18,310 ..	183,120 ..	65,103 ..	348,865 ..	165,744
Florida, ..	1,674 ..	2,555 ..	28,317 ..	14,046 ..	195,536 ..	167,218
Alabama, ..	7,206 ..	14,746 ..	148,471 ..	53,280 ..	430,823 ..	282,351
Miss.,....	4,632 ..	14,100 ..	116,018 ..	52,852 ..	367,922 ..	251,904
Texas, ...	9,567 ..	12,463 ..	128,177 ..	54,687 ..	706,280 ..	578,103
Louisiana, ..	26,772 ..	15,478 ..	218,323 ..	33,540 ..	576,017 ..	357,693
Total,....	\$ 70,351	\$ 86,236	\$ 936,101	\$ 305,927	\$ 2,879,528	\$ 1,943,422

EXCESS OF RECEIPTS.

New Hampshire,.....	\$ 1,644	Pennsylvania,.....	\$ 77,915
Massachusetts,.....	182,126	Dist. of Columbia,.....	11,262
Rhode Island,.....	25,113	Delaware,.....	14,019
Connecticut,.....	3,748		
New-York,.....	504,903	Total,.....	\$ 820,755

	<i>Free States.</i>	<i>Border Slave.</i>	<i>Gulf Slave.</i>
Letter Postage.....	\$ 660,448	\$ 78,418	\$ 70,351
Newspaper,.....	418,516	114,999	86,236
Total receipts,.....	5,879,559	1,149,470	936,101
Compensation to P. M's.,.....	1,762,321	405,889	305,927
Total expenses,.....	7,233,777	2,802,623	2,879,923
Excess of expenditures,.....	2,109,014	1,567,170	1,943,422
Excess of receipts,.....	14,019

REGISTERED LETTERS.

The largest amounts received for registered letters were—From New-York, \$2,947; from Pennsylvania, \$2,240; Ohio, \$1,971; Illinois, \$1,424; Massachusetts, \$1,197; Virginia, \$1,063. These are the only States which paid over one thousand dollars. The whole receipts from this source from the United States was only \$25,038.

STAMPS.

The principal receipts are as follows :

New-York,.....	\$ 1,315,750	Ohio,.....	\$ 450,069
Pennsylvania,.....	578,756	Illinois,.....	375,546
Massachusetts,.....	538,824		
Total receipts for the United States,...		\$ 6,698,005	

THE NEW-YORK POST OFFICE—UP-TOWN STATIONS.

Seven outside offices, or "stations," are now attached to our city post office. These stations are all established under the authority of the government, and at each of them the letters are received and sent seven times each day to the general post office. The following is a complete list of these sub-offices :

- Station "A," 129 Spring-street.
- Station "B," 439 Grand-street.
- Station "C," corner of Troy and Fourth streets.
- Station "D," 12 Bible House, Eighth-street.
- Station "E," 368 Eighth Avenue.
- Station "F," 408 Third Avenue.
- Station "G," 1,259 Broadway.

At each station stamps and stamped envelopes can be obtained, as well as all information in regard to postal matters.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE

OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

I. IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF GREAT BRITAIN. II. PROPORTION OF THE AMERICAN TRADE TO THE WHOLE. III. RATE OF INTEREST. IV. FINANCES OF ENGLAND. V. MANCHESTER CHAMBER OF COMMERCE AND THE CULTIVATION OF COTTON. VI. GENERAL BANKRUPT LAW IN ENGLAND. VII. FRAUDULENT TRADE MARKS. VIII. EXTENSION OF ADMIRALTY COURT JURISDICTION.

LONDON, *March 16th*, 1861.

THE rate of interest still rules very high, and we have the prospects of much renewed discussion on the bank charter, and its effects on the issue of notes and general accommodation. Proposals are already coming forward for providing for the increased exigencies of trade, either by enlarging the power of issue of the bank, say to £20,000,000, instead of £14,000,000, without gold, or by creating some kind of inconvertible currency on the deposit of Consols, say to the extent of twice the amount. As this subject is likely to interest you, I will be glad to give you every information on the various schemes proposed.

The finances of this country are not in a satisfactory condition. The expenditure continues very large, and the revenue will show some deficiency both in the customs and excise, especially in spirits, cigars, &c. The condition of the working classes has not been so good this year, partly in consequence of the bad harvest, and partly by reason of the severe winter and of the state of politics. As inquiry is about to be instituted on the mode of assessing the income tax, with a view to the removal of some of its worst features. All kinds of income at present pay the same. A person receiving £100 from the government funds, a person gaining £100 in the shape of salary for services, and a person receiving £100 from annuities, or from profits of trade, or rent of houses, all pay the same, though there is a great difference in the value of these different incomes.

The Chamber of Commerce of Manchester is seriously engaged in promoting the cultivation of cotton in India and an association has been formed in that town, besides the Cotton Supply Association. The aims of this new association are to invest capital in India, in the cultivation of cotton under European superintendence. The hope is moreover entertained, that the Indian government may be enabled to complete the many canals and railways which have been projected, and so diminish materially the cost of bringing cotton from the interior to the seaports. The Leeds and Bradford Chambers of Commerce are also intent upon the extension of cultivation of wool and alpaca in different colonies.

The monthly accounts of the Board of Trade for the year 1860 have been published, and they contain information of interest. The trade of the United Kingdom in the last three years has been as follows :

<i>Years.</i>	<i>Imports.</i>		<i>Exports.</i>		<i>Imports and Exports.</i>
1858,.....	£ 133,329,595	..	£ 116,608,756	..	£ 249,938,351
1859,.....	143,054,958	..	130,411,529	..	273,466,487
1860,.....	169,181,063	..	135,842,817	..	304,973,880

Our exports to the American States in the three years have been as follows :

	1858.	1859.	1860.
United States of America,...	£ 14,491,468 ..	£ 22,553,405 ..	£ 21,613,111
Mexico,	411,831 ..	597,899 ..	462,629
Central America,.....	393,179 ..	226,720 ..	182,186
New-Granada,.....	505,749 ..	729,468 ..	810,870
Venezuela,.....	316,738 ..	317,716 ..	323,663
Ecuador,.....	26,963 ..	22,261 ..	74,139
Brazil,.....	3,984,817 ..	3,685,718 ..	4,444,512
Uruguay,.....	522,670 ..	693,622 ..	922,367
Buenos Ayres,.....	1,008,819 ..	958,677 ..	1,782,399
Chili,.....	1,117,580 ..	1,474,606 ..	1,703,783
Peru,	1,163,155 ..	857,568 ..	1,381,944
	£ 23,942,949 ..	£ 32,117,660 ..	£ 33,701,603

The proportion which our American trade bears to the whole is as follows :

	1858.	1859.	1860.
Total exports,.....	£ 116,608,756 ..	£ 130,411,529 ..	£ 135,842,817
Exports to foreign countries, ..	76,386,299 ..	84,267,533 ..	92,170,560
Exports to America,.....	23,742,949 ..	32,117,660 ..	33,701,603
Exports to the United States, ..	14,491,448 ..	22,553,605 ..	21,613,111

The computed real value of the imports can only be given a month after the publication of the quantities, but an estimate may be made for the year from the amount for the eleven months, ended November 30th, which was £144,887,078, against £122,538,694 in the corresponding eleven months of 1859. The total for the year must be about one hundred and fifty-sixty millions sterling. The annexed table shows the extent to which the principal imports have participated in the aggregate increase :

	1858.	1859.	1860.
Cocoa,.....lbs.	10,338,404 ..	6,006,759 ..	9,009,839
Coffee,.....	60,697,265 ..	65,353,030 ..	82,767,746
Corn, wheat,.....qrs.	4,241,719 ..	4,000,922 ..	5,880,958
Cotton, raw,.....cwts.	9,235,198 ..	10,946,331 ..	12,419,096
Flax,.....	1,283,905 ..	1,432,037 ..	1,464,810
Hemp and Jute,.....	1,638,360 ..	2,159,980 ..	1,609,175
Hides, untanned,.....	728,288 ..	866,687 ..	848,328
Oil, palm,.....	778,230 ..	685,794 ..	804,326
Rice,.....	3,692,023 ..	1,450,092 ..	1,534,167
Silk, raw,.....lbs.	6,277,576 ..	9,920,891 ..	9,178,647
Sugar, unrefined,.....cwts.	9,010,796 ..	9,098,564 ..	8,807,586
Tallow,.....	1,235,789 ..	1,074,336 ..	1,430,108
Tea,.....lbs.	75,432,535 ..	75,077,451 ..	88,946,532
Tobacco,.....	62,216,705 ..	50,671,265 ..	51,670,893
Wine,.....galls.	5,791,636 ..	8,195,513 ..	12,483,362
Wool,.....lbs.	126,738,723 ..	133,284,634 ..	148,396,577

In the present aspect of affairs across the Atlantic, the quantities of raw cotton supplied to this country from the various sources of supply constitute a subject of much importance. We hear every day of the capabilities of this or that country for producing an illimitable supply of this essential raw material, and sometimes of actual samples submitted by experimental growers to the judgment of Manchester manufacturers; but, in the meantime, what is the state of the case at present, as disclosed by the import returns? We find that out of the total cotton imports of

last year, 9,963,309 cwts., or nearly five-sixths of the whole, came from the United States, 1,822,689 cwts. from India, 392,447 cwts. from Egypt, 154,347 cwts. from Brazil, and the remainder, 86,304 cwts., from "other countries," the last figures showing, therefore, the whole quantity that we have been able to obtain from the Levant, Africa, the West Indies, and Central America, during twelve months.

The exports of Great Britain for the year amounted in value to £135,842,817, against £130,411,529 in the preceding year, and £116,608,756 in 1858, these amounts being exclusive of the foreign and colonial produce exported. All our principal manufactures have participated in this increase of trade, as will be seen from the following table :

	1858.	1859.	1860.
Apparel and slops,.....	£ 1,944,283 ..	£ 2,183,331 ..	£ 2,156,348
Beer and ale,.....	1,851,796 ..	2,116,373 ..	1,863,998
Coal and culm,.....	3,052,753 ..	3,270,013 ..	3,321,539
Cotton manufactures,.....	33,402,264 ..	38,744,113 ..	42,148,409
" yarn,.....	9,573,320 ..	9,458,112 ..	9,875,073
Earthenware and porcelain,....	1,150,607 ..	1,313,831 ..	1,440,998
Haberdashery and millinery,....	3,473,541 ..	4,290,032 ..	4,001,277
Hardwares and cutlery,.....	3,280,466 ..	3,809,255 ..	3,772,025
Leather manufactures,.....	1,688,257 ..	1,657,611 ..	1,725,861
Linen manufactures,.....	4,134,126 ..	4,604,587 ..	4,802,203
Linen yarn,.....	1,739,190 ..	1,674,602 ..	1,800,927
Machinery,.....	3,603,989 ..	3,731,301 ..	3,825,361
Metals—pig iron,.....	1,101,118 ..	901,929 ..	974,260
Bar iron,.....	2,082,548 ..	2,373,910 ..	2,385,956
Railway iron,.....	3,568,314 ..	4,124,208 ..	3,414,335
Cast iron,.....	820,924 ..	795,819 ..	833,277
Wrought iron,.....	2,864,916 ..	3,084,720 ..	3,314,459
Steel,.....	589,781 ..	805,832 ..	906,321
Unwrought copper,.....	696,523 ..	691,627 ..	749,067
Copper, yel. metal sheets, &c.,	1,620,447 ..	1,504,442 ..	1,803,592
Wrought copper and brass,....	537,159 ..	405,236 ..	449,353
Lead,.....	459,656 ..	480,845 ..	541,347
Tin,.....	270,580 ..	353,109 ..	363,469
Tin plates,.....	1,351,193 ..	1,522,618 ..	1,498,681
Salt,.....	287,545 ..	253,922 ..	358,090
Silk manufactures,.....	1,304,945 ..	1,562,152 ..	1,577,001
Silk thrown, silk twist and yarn,	791,646 ..	791,560 ..	824,291
Wool,.....	901,495 ..	640,989 ..	868,781
Woolen manufactures,.....	9,777,977 ..	12,053,708 ..	12,163,861
Woolen yarns,.....	2,953,850 ..	3,084,061 ..	3,843,396

Of the total value of British produce and manufactures exported during the year, £43,672,257 represents the exports to British possessions, against £46,163,296 in the preceding year, and £60,222,457 in 1858; and £92,170,560, the exports to foreign countries, against £84,267,533 in 1859, and £76,386,299 in 1858. The United States were our best customer, taking goods to the value of more than twenty-one and a half millions; then comes India, nearly seventeen millions; and the Hanse Towns hold the third place, taking more than ten and a quarter millions.

The present session of the British parliament is likely to be productive of many useful measures of a commercial and economical character. The attention of the legislature is not likely to be disturbed this year by a state of war in any country, nor by a futile attempt at parliamentary reform. We are to have a year of practical work, and we expect the most satisfactory results.

The first measure the legislature has undertaken is the reform of the bankruptcy law, the state of which has for a considerable time given cause to much complaint. Year after year have measures been introduced on the subject which have received but meagre support, but the attorney-general's bill of this session is universally approved of. The principal objects aimed at by this measure are the amalgamation of bankruptcy and insolvency, and the application of the bankruptcy law to traders and non-traders alike; the creation of a chief judge of bankruptcy, and the constitution of that judge a court of appeal from the commissioners, great facilities for the settlement of bankruptcies by arrangements among creditors after adjudication, and even out of court by trust-deeds between the debtor and his creditors, provided there be the assent of three-fourths of the creditors of £10 and upwards respectively. Provisions are also made for liberating prisoners for debt, by allowing them to petition in *forma pauperis* for adjudication in bankruptcy. It would be important to introduce, in such measures, provisions for the protection of foreign creditors as regards notices, &c. With the immense increase of commerce, we may anticipate that a much larger number of foreign creditors may be interested in British bankruptcies, and *vice versa* of British creditors in foreign bankruptcies. It becomes, therefore, important for the boards of trade and chambers of commerce of different countries carefully to watch the progress of legislation in other States.

Another important measure is the bill to amend the law relating to the fraudulent marking of merchandise; the frequent counterfeit of such marks in this and other countries having proved a source of great loss to manufacturers. It is proposed by the bill to constitute the forging or imitating a trade mark, and the selling of goods with forged trade marks, with intent to defraud, a misdemeanor. Also the marking with false indication of quantity, and the selling of goods with false indication of quantity, with intent to defraud, a misdemeanor; and also the forging, imitating or falsely applying the names and marks of artists, with intent to defraud, a misdemeanor. A similar legislation exists in most States of Europe and America. But in France, Austria and other European countries, a registration of trade marks is established by law, in order to secure the right of property in the same. The British government is unwilling to adopt such a course, but I conceive it very necessary in order to avoid the necessity in each case to prove a right of property in the mark. Foreign merchants and manufacturers will, of course, participate in the same protection, and the British government will endeavor to establish reciprocity treaties on the subject with foreign powers.

Another bill has been introduced for establishing equitable councils of conciliation to settle differences between masters and operatives. Such councils to be of not less than two masters and two operatives, and of not more than ten of each. A bill is also before the House to extend the jurisdiction of the Court of Admiralty; and one to afford facilities for the better ascertainment of the law of foreign countries when pleaded in courts within Her Majesty's dominions, by giving power to superior courts to remit a case with queries to any foreign State with which Her Majesty may have made a convention for that purpose for ascertaining the law of such State.

NEW COMMERCIAL ACTS AND REGULATIONS.

I. DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND TONNAGE.

The Act to amend the provisions of the 56th section of the Act to Regulate the Collection of Duties on Imports and Tonnage, approved March 2d, 1799.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That whenever any goods, wares or merchandise shall be imported into any port of the United States from any foreign port, in any ship or vessel, at the expiration of eight working days, if the ship or vessel shall be less than three hundred tons burden, and within twelve working days, if it be of three hundred tons burden and less than eight hundred, and within fifteen days, if it be of eight hundred tons burden and upwards, after the time within which the report of the master or person having charge or command of any ship or vessel is required to be made to the collector of the district, if there shall be found any goods, wares or merchandise, other than shall have been reported for some other district, or some foreign port or place, the collector shall take possession thereof; but with the consent of the owner or consignee of any goods, wares or merchandise, or with the consent of the owner or master of the vessel in which the same may be imported, the said goods, wares or merchandise may be taken possession of by the collector, after one day's notice to the collector of the district.

Approved March 2, 1861.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, *March 15, 1861.*

The following acts of Congress, approved March 2d, 1861, are published for the information and government of officers of the customs and others concerned.

All invoices claiming to be made out in the new silver florin of Austria must be accompanied in each case by a consular certificate showing that fact.

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

II. THE FLORIN.

An Act declaring the value of the new silver Florin of Austria.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That the new silver florin of Austria shall, in all computations at the custom-house, be estimated at forty-six cents and nineteen hundredths of a cent.

Approved March 2d, 1861.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, *Washington, March 14, 1861.*

I do hereby certify that the within is a true and correct copy of the original on file in this department.

W. HUNTER, *Chief Clerk.*

III. CIRCULAR INSTRUCTIONS TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, *March 21, 1861.*

As numerous inquiries have been made respecting the tariff act of 1861, it is deemed proper to state, for the information and government of officers of the customs and others concerned, the views entertained by this department on several of its provisions.

All questions of liability to duty or of exemption therefrom of merchandise imported under the provisions of the new tariff, and questions as to the rates of duty thereon, will be determined in accordance with the provisions of the fifth section of the tariff act of 1857, which section will, in the opinion of this department, still remain in force on and after the first proximo unrepealed and unmodified.

The clause in the tariff act of 1861, repealing such of existing laws as are repugnant to its provisions, does not change or modify the warehouse or appraisement laws and regulations now in force except in one particular, which is, that in cases where a bill of lading is presented showing the day of actual shipment, certified to by a consular officer of the United States, such date—in lieu of the “period of exportation” prescribed by existing laws—shall be the date at which the foreign market value of the merchandise shall be estimated and ascertained by the appraisers in order to the assessment of *ad valorem* duties.

All merchandise actually on shipboard and bound to the United States on or before the 17th instant, whether arriving before or after the first day of April next, and all merchandise whensoever shipped which may be actually on board of vessels in port that have been regularly entered at the custom-house on or before the first day of April aforesaid, may be entered for consumption or warehousing at the rates of duty now existing, or, if the rates of duty on the merchandise are lessened by the tariff of 1861, it may be entered at such lesser rates. The same privilege will be extended to all merchandise in public store, unclaimed on the first proximo, when entered for warehousing or consumption in pursuance of law; and all merchandise in warehouse under bond on the first proximo will be entitled to entry for withdrawal at rates of duty now existing, or, if the rates of duty on the merchandise are lessened by the tariff of 1861, the entry thereof may, at the option of the importer or owner, be made at the lesser rates.

In allowances on account of tare, draft, &c., on goods subject to specific duty under the new tariff, officers of the customs will be governed by the provisions of the 58th and 59th sections of the General Collection Act of March 2d, 1799, which are again brought into operation.

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

IMPORTANT TREASURY INSTRUCTIONS.

The following Treasury instructions will be of interest to merchants trading with the States of the Southern Confederacy:

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, *April 1, 1861.*

SIR,—Referring you to the department letter of the 30th ult., directing that no further entries of merchandise for transportation in bond can

be allowed relative to shipments to the ports of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Florida and Texas, I have now to inform you that transportation bonds for merchandise to the ports referred to will be cancelled on the payment of duties at your office in cases where the party shall satisfy you by his affidavit, to be filed with his bond, that the merchandise arrived at the port of destination, and that it was found impracticable, by reason of the existing condition of affairs in those ports, to obtain the requisite cancelling certificate.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

S. P. CHASE.

AUG. SCHELL, Esq., *Collector, &c., New-York.*

THE NEW TARIFF FURTHER EXPLAINED.

The literature of the new tariff is rapidly increasing. In addition to the explanations and interpretations that have already been published, Collector SCHELL yesterday issued the following order to the clerks of the New-York Custom-House. It specifies certain rules and regulations which will hereafter be enforced :

ORDER.

Custom-House, New-York, April 1, 1861.

To the Entry and Amendment Clerks :

Under the tariff which goes into effect from and after this day, the specific duties will be made up by the entry clerks, in every case where it is practicable, upon the invoice quantity or measurements, subject to re-adjustment on receipt of the proper returns.

In cases where the duty cannot be made up from the invoice, a deposit will be taken sufficient to cover the duty, the estimate of which to be checked in the naval office. The accompanying list will serve as a guide to the entry clerks in estimating the amounts to be received as deposits on certain articles.

In cases where articles are subject to rates of duty varying according to the return of measurement, the highest rate (as was the practice under the former tariff) will be assessed in the first instance, to be subsequently reduced on liquidation, should the returns, when received, warrant such reduction. Under this rule, 30 per cent. *ad valorem* will be the estimated charge on all linens and silks.

In all cases, whether the duties are *ad valorem*, specific or secured by deposits, the invoice values will be reduced by the entry clerks to United States currency.

The invoice amount will be written in full on the invoice (as formerly) in all cases, with the rate of duty *ad valorem* or specific.

No amended duties will hereafter be made, but the original entry will be amended, (in red ink,) and in cases where a further sum of duty is due, immediate payment will be required.

The same rules will apply to entries for warehousing. When goods are withdrawn at a less rate of duty, by virtue of the provisions of the new tariff, the difference of duty will be noted on the entry and endorsed on the bond, to balance the amount originally assessed.

AUGUSTUS SCHELL, *Collector.*

IMPORTANT TREASURY CIRCULAR.

No Transportation in Bond to Southern Ports.

Collector SCHELL received the following important circular from the Treasury Department :

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, *March 30, 1861.*

SIR,—The control of the warehouses of the government in the several ports of the States of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Florida and Texas having been usurped under the alleged authority of those States, and the officers of the customs, acting under the authority of the United States, having been forcibly excluded from their proper functions in the custody of merchandise and superintendence of the entries for warehousing and withdrawal, it has become impracticable to continue the privilege of bonding for transportation to those ports.

Collectors of the customs are accordingly hereby instructed that no entries for transportation in bond to those ports can be permitted until otherwise directed by this department.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

A. SCHELL, Esq., *Collector of Customs, New-York.*

RATES OF DEPOSIT.

The following schedule has been prepared for the use of clerks in determining the proper deposits on merchandise entered for consumption. Average duty to be calculated for deposition the following articles, viz. :

Unbleached cottons,	average, 45 per cent.
Bleached cottons,	" 45 "
Colored or printed cottons,	" 50 "
Cotton quiltings,	" 30 "
Carpetings, ingrain and Dutch,	" 30 "
" felt,	" 40 "
" other,	" 35 "
Hearth-rugs or door-mats, (wool,)	" 35 "
Blankets,	" 40 "
Wool shawls,	" 40 "
Woollen cloths, (fine,)	" 35 "
" coatings, viz., beaver, castor,	" 40 "
Cloth, (wool and cotton,)	" 40 "
Wool, average 18½ to 24 cents per lb.,	" 15 "
" " 24½ to \$1 00 per lb.,	" 30 "
Linens, piece goods, duty to be closed up, ..	" 30 "
Silks,	" 30 "
Silk velvets,	" 30 "
Wearing apparel, (wool,)	" 50 "
Segars, from \$2 to \$5 per M.,	" 80 "
" above \$5 and not above \$10 per M., ..	" 60 "
" over \$10 per M.,	" 42 "
Brandy,	average on 3d proof, \$1 16 per gallon.
Gin,	" 2d " 0 43 "
Kirschenwasser, &c., ..	" 3d " 0 58 "
Rum or spirits,	" 3d " 0 46 "

AUGUSTUS SCHELL, *Collector.*

Custom-House, New-York, April 1, 1861.

The New Tariff.—The following instructions have been received from the Secretary of the Treasury :

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, *April 1, 1861.*

SIR,—Referring you to the department's letter of the 30th ult., directing that no further entries of merchandise for transportation in bond can be allowed relative to shipments to the ports of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Florida and Texas, I have now to instruct you that transportation bonds for merchandise to the ports referred to will be cancelled on the payment of duties at your office, in cases where the party shall satisfy you by his affidavit, to be filed with his bond, that the merchandise arrived at the port of destination, and that it was found impracticable, by reason of the existing condition of the affairs in those ports, to obtain the requisite cancelling certificate.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

AUGUSTUS SCHELL, Esq., *Collector, &c., New-York.*

PUBLIC RESOLUTION IN CONGRESS—No. 4.

Joint Resolution, giving the assent of Congress to certain acts passed, or to be passed, by the Legislatures of the States of Arkansas, Louisiana and Texas, or any two of them, in relation to the "Raft" of Red River, and for other purposes.

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the assent of Congress be and the same is hereby given to any acts that have been or may be passed by the Legislatures of the States of Arkansas, Louisiana and Texas, or of any two of them, having for their object the improvement of the navigation of Red River, by the removal of the "raft" therefrom.

SECTION 2. *And be it further resolved,* That Congress hereby assents after and so soon as any company incorporated by the States aforesaid, or any two of them, for the purpose, shall have removed the obstructions to navigation in Red River caused by the "raft," and have rendered the same navigable, and not before, the said States, or any two of them, may, through the said company, under and in accordance with, and in the mode provided by the acts incorporating the same, for the benefit of the company and to reimburse to it its expenditures in removing said "raft," levy and collect, by way of commutation for duties of tonnage, tolls upon all boats or other water crafts ascending or descending said river, and passing through the portion thereof that shall so have been improved and rendered navigable, not to exceed the following sums; that is to say, fifty cents on and for each bale of cotton, and twenty-five cents on and for each barrel of goods, wares and merchandise wherewith such boats or crafts may be laden; and that this privilege may continue until the expiration of thirty years from the ninth day of March, Anno Domini eighteen hundred and sixty: *Provided,* That nothing herein contained shall authorize the said company to impair the navigation of Red Bayou: *Provided further,* That the United States shall have the right, at any time after the expiration of ten years, to take possession of the work by paying to the company the amount of expenditure, with seven per centum interest.

Approved, February 21, 1861.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

NEW SILK WORMS.

It is gratifying to record the honors bestowed upon those efforts which are needful in adding to the wants of industry throughout the world.

M. DE MONTIGNY, who introduced into France the oak of Mantchouria, on the leaves of which silkworms feed, and also the ignaure, sorgho and bamboo, is to receive a medal of honor from the Society of Acclimation. On one side of the medal is to be the profile of M. DE MONTIGNY, and on the other an appropriate inscription, surrounded with a wreath of leaves of the oak and the plants brought to France by him.

STEAM ON THE WELLAND CANAL.

About 3,500 sailing vessels—chiefly American—passed through it last year, and \$120,000 were paid for towage, which is by old-fashioned horse-power. Of course, the employment of horse-power is attended with many inconveniences. Sometimes a change of wind, from foul to fair, will bring a hundred or a hundred and fifty sail into Port Colborne, Lake Erie, and a delay of five or six days ensues before they can all get horses to tow them into Lake Ontario. In addition to this, those who have the horses exact excessive sums from anxious captains on such occasions, and a serious tax on shipping is the result. Moreover, the horses are owned mostly by tavern-keepers, who profit by every delay. Trade has suffered from these vexations too long, and a remedy is now sought.

The Commissioner of Public Works, Hon. Mr. ROSE, is about to advertise immediately for tenders for towing on the canal by steam. The tugs required are small screws, such as are owned on the American shores of the lakes. The rates for towing are not to be much reduced, but it is estimated that the profit to the shipping interest will be great, as the delays in finding towage will be avoided, the passage through the canal shortened by several hours, and vessels thus enabled to make one or two more in the season.

AMERICAN SEA OFFICERS IN GREAT BRITAIN.

The Hon. Mr. LINDSAY, in his address last year before the Chamber of Commerce, alluded to the fact that foreign vessels can be purchased and registered in England. It appears, now, that not only the American vessels, but their officers, are to be registered in Great Britain. Since, we learn from the London *Mercantile and Shipping Gazette*, that several American captains had passed the Board of Trade examinations, in order to command their ships under the British flag; that is, to obtain the requisite certificates of competency. According to English law, however, other qualifications are said to be necessary; they must also be naturalized; but we understand that the statute relating to this subject is so

loosely worded, that this requirement may be set aside or explained in a liberal sense to meet the American exigency. This is a summary mode of insuring the efficiency of the British marine. It is a high compliment, not only to the superiority of our vessels, but to the skill of our officers, which are required to bring out the good qualities of ships. It was remarked, when the yacht *AMERICA* passed by sale into British hands, that her performances were less satisfactory than when under the control of American seamen.

QUICK VOYAGE.

The bark *REINDEER*, of New-Haven, Capt. A. S. LANFARE, sailed from New-York 17th January, for Barbadoes, with 86 head of horses and mules on deck. Arrived at Barbadoes in nine days, discharged her inboard cargo, took in ballast, and proceeded to Port Spain, Trinidad, and landed the deck load. Sailed from thence 2d February, and arrived back to New-York 20th; thus making the round voyage in thirty-three days, counting the day of sailing and arriving as one day.

FOREIGN COMMERCE OF NEW-YORK.

Hitherto New-Orleans has occupied a prominent position in the foreign export trade of the country. We find that, for the fiscal year ending June 30th, 1860, of the exports New-York reports over \$145,000,000 out of \$400,000,000 in the aggregate, or thirty-six per cent.; while of the imports, amounting to \$362,000,000 for the whole country, New-York reports \$248,000,000, or a fraction over two-thirds, and of the aggregate movement New-York has one-half of the whole United States. The general results are as follows:

IMPORTS.	
New-York,.....	\$ 248,489,877
All other States,.....	113,676,377
Total for the year ending July 1st, 1860,.....	\$ 362,166,254

EXPORTS.	
New-York,.....	\$ 145,555,449
All other States,.....	254,566,847
Total exports for 1859-1860,.....	\$ 400,122,296

New-York presents the following extraordinary results:

Exports by American vessels, domestic produce,.....	\$ 76,263,788
“ “ foreign “ “	49,797,179
Total domestic produce,.....	\$ 126,069,967
Total foreign produce,.....	19,494,482
Total for the year 1859-1860,.....	\$ 145,555,449

Next to New-York, Louisiana claims the largest export, being the depot of the vast produce of Illinois, Missouri, Kentucky, Tennessee and other portions of the Mississippi Valley.

TRADE OF THE STATES.

The following table shows the States mostly interested in commerce, and the amount of their individual trade :

STATES.	Fiscal year 1859-1860.			1858-1859.		1857-1858.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Total.	Total.		Total.	
New-York,.....	\$ 248,459,000	\$ 145,555,000	\$ 394,044,000	\$ 345,721,000	..	\$ 286,816,000	
Massachusetts,....	41,187,000	17,068,000	58,190,000	61,843,000	..	64,775,000	
Louisiana,.....	22,922,000	108,417,000	131,339,000	120,016,000	..	107,462,000	
Alabama,.....	1,050,000	88,670,000	89,720,000	29,721,000	..	21,629,000	
South Carolina,...	1,569,000	21,205,000	22,774,000	19,411,000	..	18,996,000	
Georgia,.....	782,000	18,488,000	19,265,000	16,186,000	..	10,009,000	
Maryland,.....	9,784,000	9,001,000	18,785,000	18,950,000	..	19,872,000	
Pennsylvania,....	14,684,000	5,628,000	20,262,000	19,895,000	..	18,928,000	
Virginia,.....	1,326,000	5,858,000	7,184,000	7,888,000	..	8,356,000	
California,.....	9,580,000	10,296,000	19,876,000	27,082,000	..	24,029,000	
Total ten States,...	\$ 351,328,000	\$ 380,126,000	\$ 731,439,000	\$ 667,163,000	..	\$ 580,372,000	
All others,.....	10,843,000	20,006,000	30,849,000	28,894,000	..	26,885,000	
Totals,.....	\$ 362,166,000	\$ 400,122,000	\$ 762,288,000	\$ 695,557,000	..	\$ 607,257,000	

WOOL TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

Official Accounts of the Board of Trade relating to Wool, &c., for the years 1858, 1859 and 1860.

IMPORTS OF WOOL, &c., INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Articles.	Importations.		
	1858.	1859.	1860.
Wool, sheep and lambs':			
From Hanse Towns and other parts of Europe,..... lbs.	28,624,819	39,291,190	38,840,961
British Possessions in South Africa,	16,597,504	14,269,343	16,574,345
British East Indies,.....	17,333,507	14,363,403	20,214,173
Australia,.....	51,104,560	53,700,481	59,165,939
Other countries,.....	10,890,200	9,158,583	10,706,233
Total,.....	124,050,590	130,783,000	145,501,651
Wool, Alpaca and the Llama tribe, lbs.	2,688,133	2,501,634	2,894,926
Woollen manufactures:			
Manufactures not made up, value,....	£ 817,112	£ 865,673	£ 918,927
Articles wholly or partially made up:			
Shawls, scarfs and handkerchiefs, lbs.	16,422	146,886	446,170

EXPORTS OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL WOOL, &c., FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Wool, sheep and lambs', produce of British Possessions abroad:	Exportations.		
To Hanse Towns,..... lbs.	517,612	432,312	1,349,770
Belgium,.....	8,372,725	6,229,878	6,829,936
France,.....	11,137,539	11,876,796	15,125,629
Other countries,.....	2,049,029	2,077,292	2,548,706
Totals,.....	22,076,905	20,616,278	25,854,041

Woolfaring :	1858.	1859.	1860.
To Hanse Towns,.....lbs.	268,669 ..	868,983 ..	434,597
Belgium,.....	1,493,011 ..	1,641,173 ..	1,247,328
France,.....	519,110 ..	387,804 ..	594,327
Other countries,.....	2,229,731 ..	5,865,742 ..	2,506,410
Total,.....lbs.	4,510,521 ..	8,213,702 ..	4,782,662
Total of sheep and lambs' wool,..	26,587,426 ..	28,829,990 ..	30,636,703
Wool, Alpaca and the Llama tribe, lbs.	114,116 ..	276,770 ..	251,640
Woolen manufactures not made up, value,	£22,982 ..	20,044 ..	26,130

EXPORTS OF BRITISH AND IRISH WOOL, WOOLLENS, &c., FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Wool, sheep and lambs':

To Belgium,..... lbs.	1,126,947 ..	820,830 ..	653,738
France,.....	10,789,541 ..	6,170,228 ..	8,124,147
Other countries,.....	1,529,381 ..	2,063,093 ..	2,896,959
Total,.....lbs.	13,445,869	9,054,151	11,673,844

Woollens—Cloths of all kinds, Duffels and Kerseymeres:

To United States,..... pieces,	129,883 ..	143,089 ..	136,008
Brazil,.....	57,656 ..	33,599 ..	33,584
Buenos Ayres,.....	25,692 ..	24,729 ..	40,164
Chili,.....	18,048 ..	18,450 ..	19,346
Peru,.....	29,713 ..	22,524 ..	23,497
China and Hong Kong,.....	51,767 ..	79,262 ..	80,367
British North America,.....	25,845 ..	34,841 ..	41,136
British East Indies,.....	78,556 ..	68,059 ..	44,505
Australia,.....	31,339 ..	22,923 ..	22,593
Other countries,.....	115,844 ..	126,764 ..	137,935
Total,.....pieces,	564,338 ..	574,240 ..	579,135

Mixed stuffs, flannels, blankets and carpets:

To Hanse Towns,.....yds.	4,748,613 ..	4,441,269 ..	4,241,342
France,.....	3,896,902 ..	3,187,283 ..	3,331,532
Naples and Sicily,.....	1,697,856 ..	1,141,232 ..	1,320,739
United States,.....	38,451,180 ..	55,607,009 ..	52,537,607
Brazil,.....	1,189,073 ..	884,408 ..	1,260,149
British North America,.....	2,636,774 ..	3,497,567 ..	4,228,859
British East Indies,.....	2,114,935 ..	1,866,603 ..	1,033,788
Australia,.....	4,905,560 ..	5,380,796 ..	3,546,044
Other countries,.....	16,962,163 ..	17,349,092 ..	21,579,524
Total,.....yds.	76,603,056	93,355,257	93,079,584

Stockings,.....doz. pairs,	135,314 ..	281,607 ..	272,332
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Worsted stuffs:

To Hanse Towns,.....pieces,	555,729 ..	561,621 ..	556,026
Holland,.....	168,470 ..	152,940 ..	171,721
Belgium,.....	139,370 ..	110,041 ..	79,564
United States,.....	460,247 ..	813,150 ..	785,168
China and Hong Kong,.....	75,683 ..	142,838 ..	197,979
British North America,.....	113,702 ..	146,224 ..	131,936
British East Indies,.....	78,094 ..	59,141 ..	44,168
Australia,.....	128,615 ..	148,945 ..	92,816
Other countries,.....	630,404 ..	587,041 ..	557,378
Total,.....pieces,	2,350,314 ..	2,721,941 ..	2,616,756

	1858.	1859.	1860.
Woollen and worsted yarn:			
To Russia,.....cwt.	17,895 ..	18,512 ..	20,390
Hanover,.....	21,660 ..	10,344 ..	13,485
Hanse Towns,.....	104,293 ..	89,459 ..	123,703
Holland,.....	40,580 ..	47,305 ..	54,763
Belgium,.....	11,802 ..	12,338 ..	14,460
France,.....	9,972 ..	7,432 ..	9,865
Other countries,.....	7,727 ..	8,622 ..	9,178
Total,.....cwt.	213,929 ..	204,012 ..	245,839

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

THE TURKISH TARIFF.

THE London *Times* remarks, that the treaties which the Porte has just concluded with England and France are such as we are not likely to obtain for years from the democratic government of the Western world or the model empire of Russia. These treaties, it is understood, are perfectly identical, and when they are once in force with the two Western powers, they will, no doubt, be speedily extended to other nations. The principal stipulation is, that one uniform *ad valorem* duty of eight per cent. on both imports and exports is to be temporarily substituted for those now existing. The present system is, perhaps, one of the most singular that ever was devised by man. Every one, by the laws of the Turkish empire, may trade at an advantage with Turkey, if the code of protection be true, for the foreigner is protected against the native in the most complete manner. The simple manner of the Ottoman financiers for raising money by customs has been to place a 5 per cent. duty on imports and a 12 per cent. duty on exports, both levied *ad valorem*. This system has, under various modifications, been in force for a great number of years, and has actually been incorporated into several commercial treaties with foreign States within the last twenty years. The consequences has been to lessen the little export trade which the empire possessed. The exports in corn, figs and other produce have been hampered by this absurd impost, so that the English, French and German manufactures, required by all classes, have been paid for in money to an extent which has seriously deranged the finances of the country. That, in spite of all of these hindrances, the trade of the empire should have so much increased of late years is a proof of its immense resources, and gives reason to hope that the adoption of a better system will be followed by a new period of prosperity. The 8 per cent. is now, as we have said, to be levied on imports and exports, but only the duty on imports is to be permanent. That on exports is to be diminished 1 per cent. yearly until it is reduced to 1 per cent., and at that amount it is to remain during the twenty-eight years that the treaty lasts. No diminution of the 8 per cent. import duty is to take place. The duty of 3 per cent., levied upon goods imported into Turkey for despatch into other countries, is to be reduced to 2 per cent. henceforth, and to a fixed and definite rate of 1 per cent. at the end of the eighth year. Two articles are excepted from the provisions of this

treaty—tobacco and salt. The government seems to see with jealousy the introduction of weapons and military stores. And well it may, since not only have rifles and cannon been introduced into Hungary from the Black Sea ports, but the Herzegovina has been supplied with arms, which it is now using in a furious insurrection against the Porte. Hence, by the 10th article, it is stipulated that French (or English) subjects for the future shall not be able "to import either cannon, powder, arms or munitions of war. The trade in these different articles rests altogether under the immediate surveillance of the Ottoman government, which retains the right of regulating the same." The time during which the treaty is to be in force, and the provinces to which it is to extend, are declared by the 16th article. The term is twenty-eight years, yet each of the high contracting parties reserves to itself the power to propose, at the expiration of ten years, the modifications which experience may suggest. The treaty is to be binding throughout the whole empire, including not only Egypt, "but the other parts of Africa under the dominion of the Sublime Porte;" that is, Tripoli and Tunis. It will also extend to Servia, and the highly prosperous community of the Danubian provinces. An empire inhabited by races so much inclined by nature to commerce as the Levantines cannot but prosper under the commercial freedom which is being so rapidly established in Western Europe. Extravagance among the high, apathy among the low, will always be a bar to Mussulman progress; but the Turks do not form the whole of the Sultan's subjects, and there are millions who will become better customers of Great Britain through the reforms which the Porte is about to accomplish.

FREE PORTS IN CANADA.

The Canadian Government *Gazette*, of the 31st December, contains the proclamation establishing the free ports at Gaspe and Sault Ste. Marie. Their boundaries are as follows: The limits at the free port of Gaspe extend "three miles inland from low-water mark" around all the shores of Gaspe Basin; and the district which is annexed to the port, and to which goods may be exported from Gaspe free, comprehends the whole of the eastern peninsula, from River Chatte round to River Nouvelle, (Bay of Chaleurs,) also the Magdalen Islands, the Island of Anticosti and the north shore of the St. Lawrence from Point des Monts to Labrador. Vessels and goods that have been duly reported and entered either for duty or for the warehouse at any Canadian port of entry, may be taken direct from such port to New-Carlisle or Pasbeac and to Perce, and there reported, entered and landed free of duty, as if they were entered at Gaspe. The exportation of fish may also be made direct from these outposts, as well as from Gaspe. The limits of the free port of Sault Ste. Marie are co-extensive with the town plot there, and the district annexed to it comprehends the north shores of the great lakes; or, indeed, the whole unsettled part of Canada west of the meridian 81 degrees W. The Mannitoulin Islands are included within its boundaries. The regulations under which trade with these free ports is to be carried on will, no doubt, be published in future *Gazettes*.

NOTICE TO MARINERS.

NEW-GRANADIAN CONSULATE, *New-York*, April 10, 1861.

The undersigned respectfully requests the editor of the *Herald* to give publicity to the following official communication.

G. DOMINGUEZ, *Consul*.

[Translation.]

NEW-GRANADIAN LEGATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

G. DOMINGUEZ, Esq., *Consul of the Confederation, New-York* :

You are hereby requested to make known to all ship-owners, shippers and insurers, whom it may concern, that in conformity with a decree issued by authority of the government of the Confederation, the ports of Rio Hacha, Santa Martha, Carthagena and Zapote, in the Atlantic, and those of Buenaventura, Tomaco and Izpuande, in the Pacific, together with the rivers of Quibdo and Novita, remain closed against commerce; also, that war vessels of the Confederation have received orders to cruise about said ports, and to seize, in accordance with the above mandate, all vessels found trading with said ports in violation of this prohibitory decree. This latter clause is temporal in its character, continuing in force until such time that order shall be restored in those sections.

With sentiments of the highest consideration, I remain your obedient servant,

RAFAEL POMBO.

STOP LAW IN TENNESSEE.

The following is a copy of the bill prescribing the remedy for the collection of debts and relief for the people, as it finally passed through the legislature and is now a law :

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Tennessee*, That from and after the passage of this act all judgments and decrees which shall be rendered in any of the courts of record in this State, or which shall be rendered by justices of the peace of this State for money, shall be stayed by such courts and justices for the period of twelve months from the rendition of such decree or judgment : *Provided*, That the defendant or defendants in said judgments or decrees shall appear before said courts of record during the term of such court, or within two days after the rendition of the judgment, before justices of the peace, and give good and ample security for the stay of execution, to be approved of by said courts or justices, which stay shall operate as a judgment against the security in said courts or before said justices.

SEC. 2. *Be it further enacted*, That upon affidavit of the plaintiff in the judgment, his agent or attorney, made before the court or justice of the peace, or before the clerk of said court if in vacation, showing that the security for the stay of execution is not good and sufficient, the defendant, upon five days' notice being given, shall justify the security already given, or give other security to be approved of by the justice of the peace, or by the court, if in session, and if in vacation by the clerk of said court, and upon his failure to justify or give other security, execution shall issue immediately. If the additional security shall be taken by a justice of the peace, it shall be sufficient to bind the security if he write his name as additional

security or stayor upon the justice's docket, or shall authorize the same to be done by the justice, either verbally or in writing. If said additional security shall be taken by the court, the same shall be entered as matter of record on the minutes of said court. If said additional security shall be taken by the clerk in vacation, it shall be sufficient, in order to bind the security, that he acknowledge himself additional security or stayor on the execution docket in said clerk's office.

SEC. 3. *Be it further enacted*, That in all cases where judgments or decrees have been rendered by any of the courts or justices of the peace in this State, upon which executions have been issued and not levied, the defendant or defendants in said judgment or execution may appear before the justice of the peace, or court, if in session, or before the clerk of said court in vacation, and upon giving good and ample security to said justice, court or clerk, as the case may be, in the manner provided in the second section of this act for giving additional security, said execution shall be stayed six months from the time said security shall be given, when execution may issue against the parties to the original judgment and the security for the stay of the execution. And that in all cases where any execution or order of sale may be levied on personal property, that the debtor in the process shall have the option to avail himself of the preceding provisions of this act, or it shall be lawful for him to give bond in double the value of the property, and good security to the officer for the forthcoming of said property for sale at the court-house of the county, or such other place as the parties may agree upon, in which the levy is made, on the first Monday of December, 1861. And if in the interval the surety or sureties become insolvent, the levying officer may notify the defendant, and he shall give sufficient additional security for the delivery of said property at said time and place. In order to constitute the levy on real estate valid as to proceedings before a justice of the peace, the execution shall be registered in the register's office of the county where the land lies.

SEC. 4. *Be it further enacted*, That in case additional security shall be given as provided in the second section of this act, the first security given shall not hereby be released from liability, but execution shall issue against the original parties to the judgment, and against the first as well as additional securities.

SEC. 5. *Be it further enacted*, That this act shall not be so construed so as to authorize the stay of execution upon judgments before justices of the peace that were not subject to stay before the passage of this act. Nor shall executions on judgments rendered in court against officers and their securities for official default, nor judgments in favor of a security, accommodation endorser, stayor or co-security, who has been compelled to pay money for his principal or co-security, be stayed under the provisions of this act.

SEC. 6. *Be it further enacted*, That upon application of the stayor or security for the delivery of property, as provided for by this act, by affidavit in writing, to be filed with the papers, that he is fearful and believes, and has good reason to believe, that if execution is stayed he will be compelled to pay the judgment, an execution shall issue against the debtor and stayor at any time; or if the security for the delivery of the property shall make such affidavit, the principal in said delivery bond, upon ten days' notice, shall deliver the property mentioned in said bond, at the

place designated therein, and the officer shall proceed to expose the same to public sale to pay said debt: *Provided*, The parties to the original judgment may give new, good and sufficient security, as now provided by law.

SEC. 7. *Be it further enacted*, That delivery bonds given under the provisions of this act shall have the same effect and be governed in all respects by the laws now in force in reference to delivery bonds, except so far as the same may conflict with this act.

SEC. 8. *Be it further enacted*, That if any party, upon being notified to give additional security, and shall fail to do so, then the officer shall proceed and sell the property levied upon as though no delivery bond had been given.

SEC. 9. *Be it further enacted*, That this act shall not apply to actions or judgments against executors, administrators or other persons acting in a fiduciary capacity for money due by them to distributees, legatees or others, and which has been actually collected by them.

SEC. 10. This act shall expire by its own limitation on the first day of July, 1862.

Passed January 26, 1861.

W. C. WHITTHORNE,
Speaker of the House of Representatives.
TAZ. W. NEWMAN,
Speaker of the Senate.

(A true copy.)

J. E. R. RAY, *Secretary of State.*

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

THE disastrous uncertainty which attended political events continued during the month to act adversely upon commercial enterprise, and, as a consequence, the currents of business gradually dried up, leaving a degree of stagnation in most pursuits, both trading and producing, to which the country has long been a stranger. It resulted that capital, which had, during the activity of business, been invested in goods, manufactured and imported, and which had been spread over the surface of the country in exchange for the paper of purchasers, gradually flowed back on the maturity of the paper, into the great reservoirs, where it accumulates to an unwonted extent. The banks of four leading cities hold \$83,000,000 of specie, which still accumulates. The payments from the interior are through the medium of produce, which has been forwarded to an extent so far in excess of the importations of goods as to bring a large balance in specie into the country; and New-York held over \$40,000,000 idle in bank, while it was freely offered at 4 @ 4½ per cent., without takers. No two facts could more clearly illustrate the utter prostration of business than the idleness of this vast capital, while it is offered at unprecedentedly low rates, precisely at that period of the year when usually it is most active. The trade tables, as usual, at the close of this article indicate the decline of importations and the disturbance caused by the

operation of the new tariff, which went into operation April 1st. The amount of goods in bond, February 1st, was \$24,092,379; this, by the effect of small importations, was reduced to \$21,438,561. During the month of March the importations of merchandise have been \$12,657,941, or about half the amount of those of the corresponding month last year. This, added to the amount in bond on the first of the month, gives \$34,096,506 as the supply of goods in all March, against, for the corresponding month in 1860, \$9,755,890 in bond, and \$23,495,032 imported, or, together, \$33,250,922. The supply of goods was thus larger this year. A considerable portion of these, however, required to be taken out of bond before the 1st of April, in order to avoid the new tax, and other goods, as sugar, went into bond in order to avail of the lessened duty by the new tariff. Of the amount of goods (\$5,781,728) withdrawn, \$4,741,059 was dry goods. The effect of the tariff was thus to cause the withdrawal of goods in the last week of March and in the first week of April to be very active under the old tariff. These operations do not, however, indicate any improved demand for goods, but merely the movements to avail of the lowest duties. The effect of this was, notwithstanding the dullness of business, to raise the revenue of the two weeks ending with August 6th to \$1,500,667, against \$1,471,241 in the corresponding two weeks of 1860. This fact supported the credit of the government during the pendency of the loan, for which proposals were issued March 22, to the extent of \$8,000,000. The stock offered bore 6 per cent. semi-annual interest, twenty years to run. Those bids were offered on the 2d April during a period of returning confidence that peace would be maintained. On opening the bids it was found that for \$3,100,000 a rate of 94 c. was offered, or about $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. higher than the previous loan; about $93\frac{1}{2}$ c. was offered for sums equal to a balance of the loan, or three per cent. higher than the rate at which the previous loan had been issued. The whole amount offered was over \$30,000,000. The Department thought proper to reject all bids below 94, an unprecedented action which was received with disfavor. The rejection of the money seemed, however, to confirm the public impression that no measures tending to bring on collision would be attempted. Rumors, however, became suddenly rife that great activity prevailed in the army and navy, with the view to such measures as might bring on hostilities. Eight steamers were chartered by the government, viz., the ATLANTIC, BALTIC, ILLINOIS, OCEAN QUEEN, FASHION, THOMAS FREEBORN, COATZACOALCOS and YANKEE, besides the STAR OF THE WEST, EMPIRE CITY, &c., were all armed and provisioned. Most of these vessels sailed under sealed orders. These facts produced much uneasiness, and, in the midst of the uncertainty, the Department issued proposals for 6 per cent. Treasury Notes for the balance of the loan, payable within two years, and convertible into a 20 year stock, at the pleasure of the holder. The bids were to be opened on the 11th, but as it was found, up to the last moment, only \$1,000,000 was offered, several bank officers interested in the credit of the government requested that the opening might be delayed until they could make further effort. The amount was, with much exertion, finally made up at par. It will be borne in mind first, that money can with difficulty be put out at 4 per cent. on the best stocks. The banks have over \$43,000,000 lying idle; and that the stock at 94 would give an interest of 6.38 per cent., or $2\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. more than could be got at call in the open market. In the case of the Treasury

Notes, they are receivable for customs, and the large importers have always large sums lying in bank to meet duties. These, in ordinary times, may be employed "at call" at 7 per cent. They can now be hardly employed at all. These funds, invested in the Treasury Notes receivable for duties, would be earning 6 per cent. until wanted, on a perfect security. Many of the importers, therefore, took them at par, but the amount of duties to be paid in case of disturbance may be small, and large issues of notes might cause them to fall. The great amount lying idle and still accumulating must, however, be employed, and the government loan seems to present the only mode of employing them. Many of the States and cities are also issuing loans for army purposes, but the constitutions of many prevent more than an issue of \$1,000,000 in a year, except in case of invasion. The government would, no doubt, get all the money it can want at a rate which would yield 7 per cent. interest. New-York City offered \$375,000 water loan; and \$421,000 was bid at par and over, April 20.

The rates of money in the open market of course declined under this state of things, as follows:

RATES OF MONEY IN NEW-YORK.

1861.	On call.		Endorsed.				Single names.	Other good.	Not well known.
	Stocks.	Other.	60 days.	4 to 6 months.	13	15			
Jan. 1.	5½ @ 6½	8 @ 10	10 @ 12	13 @ 15	18	18	—	—	—
Jan. 15.	5 @ 6	6 @ 7	7 @ 8	8 @ 9	8	10	12 @ 16	18 @ 24	
Feb. 1.	5 @ 6	6 @ 7	7 @ 8	8 @ 9	8	10	12 @ 15	18 @ 24	
Feb. 15.	5 @ 6	— @ 7	7½ @ 8	8 @ 9	8	10	12 @ 15	18 @ 24	
Mar. 1.	5½ @ 6½	6½ @ 7	7½ @ 8	8 @ 9	9	11	12 @ 15	18 @ 24	
Mar. 15.	5 @ 6	6 @ 7	5½ @ 6	6½ @ 7	7	8	12 @ 15	18 @ 36	
April 1.	5 @ 5½	6 @ 6½	5½ @ 6	6½ @ 7	6½ @ 7	8 @ 9	12 @ 24		
April 15.	4½ @ 5½	6 @ 6½	5½ @ 6	6½ @ 7	6½ @ 7	8 @ 9	12 @ 24		

The decrease of business necessarily brought with it a decrease of good business paper, while a good deal of endorsed paper has been gradually got under in the course of collections, or altogether thrown out of the circle of negotiation. The funds accumulate and the demand lessens. The large exports of produce, in face of diminished imports of goods, continues to produce its legitimate effects upon the course of exchange, which, after a disposition to rise, again had a declining tendency. The comparative rates are as follows:

RATES OF BILLS IN NEW-YORK.

1860.	London.	Paris.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
Dec. 1.	1 @ 5	5.47½ @ 5.40	39½ @ 40½	40 @ 40½	34½ @ 35½	69½ @ 76½
Dec. 15.	1 @ 4	5.60 @ 5.50	39 @ 39½	39 @ 39½	34½ @ 34½	72½ @ 73½
1861.						
Jan. 1.	2½ @ 5	5.40 @ 5.45	35½ @ 39½	39½ @ 39½	34½ @ 35	68½ @ 69½
Jan. 15.	5¼ @ 6½	5.30 @ 5.33½	40 @ 40½	40½ @ 40½	35½ @ 35½	70½ @ 70½
Feb. 1.	5 @ 6	5.37½ @ 5.35	40 @ 40½	40½ @ 40½	35½ @ 36	70½ @ 70½
Feb. 15.	2 @ 5½	5.42½ @ 5.35	39½ @ 40½	40½ @ 40½	35½ @ 35½	70½ @ 70½
Mar. 1.	3½ @ 6	5.40 @ 5.35	39½ @ 40½	40½ @ 40½	35½ @ 35½	70½ @ 71
Mar. 15.	6 @ 6½	5.37 @ 5.30	40 @ 40½	40½ @ 40½	36 @ 36½	70½ @ 71½
April 1.	7½ @ 8½	5.26½ @ 5.22½	40½ @ 40½	40½ @ 41	35½ @ 36	71½ @ 72
April 15.	6 @ 7	5.35 @ 5.30	40 @ 40½	40 @ 40½	35 @ 35½	71 @ 71½

Following these rates of bills, not only have the gold receipts from California remained on this side, but the arrivals from abroad have continued large, swelling the receipts at New-York to double those of last year.

GOLD RECEIVED FROM CALIFORNIA AND EUROPE AND EXPORTED FROM NEW-YORK WEEKLY,
WITH THE AMOUNT OF SPECIE IN SUB-TREASURY, AND THE TOTAL IN THE CITY.

1880.				1881.			
		Received.	Exported.			Specie in Sub-Treas.	Total in the City.
January 5,...			\$85,080 ..	\$1,482,857			
				1,338,100*		\$3,645,437 ..	\$23,485,000
January 12,...	\$1,788,606 ..	83,482 ..		1,446,219		2,584,455 ..	29,045,300
				1,400,000*			
January 19,...		252,400 ..		1,693,052		2,166,249 ..	31,764,700
January 26,...	1,760,592 ..	81,300 ..		1,246,029	\$22,835 ..	5,751,298 ..	34,720,300
				1,518,698			
February 2,...	94,596 ..	437,457 ..		1,900,006*	289,669 ..	4,928,000 ..	35,392,000
				800,000			
February 9,...	1,476,621 ..	92,350 ..		1,616,111	117,101 ..	3,856,000 ..	40,475,000
February 16,...		592,997 ..		2,391,248*	187,253 ..	3,386,700 ..	41,381,000
February 23,...	1,893,179 ..	202,000 ..		855,735		9,166,080 ..	43,646,000
March 2,...	832,508 ..	667,282 ..		2,256,000*		7,524,637 ..	41,417,000
March 9,...	1,198,711 ..	115,473 ..		3,040,000*			
				815,524		123,316 ..	6,720,805 ..
March 16,...	152,000 ..	429,260 ..		1,940,252*	123,376 ..	6,240,519 ..	45,731,253
March 23,...	895,336 ..	465,115 ..			16,088 ..	6,092,841 ..	47,500,149
March 30,...	155,110 ..	706,006 ..				8,486,494 ..	50,192,052
April 6,...		310,083 ..		996,445	693,708 ..	10,441,273 ..	52,206,026
April 13,...	1,146,211 ..	680,010 ..		378,000		11,095,048 ..	51,678,923
April 20,...		241,503 ..					
		\$10,443,515 ..	\$5,894,306 ..	\$27,228,522 ..	\$1,500,225 ..		

The New-York Assay Office has continued unusually active under this flow of specie, as follows :

NEW-YORK ASSAY OFFICE—DEPOSITS.

	Foreign.				United States.			
	Gold.		Silver.		Silver.		Payments in	
	Coin.	Bullion.	Coin.	Bullion.	Coin.	Bullion.	Bars.	Coin.
Jan.,.....	\$4,500,000	\$1,000,000	\$59,000	\$40,000	\$2,539,000	\$20,000	\$57,000	\$2,000
Feb.,.....	2,140,000	1,200,000	61,000	34,000	1,563,000	51,000	15,000	5,084,000
Mar.,.....	2,700,000	500,000	60,000	65,000	1,860,000	15,300	24,800	260,000
Total,	\$9,340,000	\$2,700,000	\$170,000	\$139,000	\$5,962,000	\$35,300	\$132,800	\$277,000
" 1880,	27,000	61,000	41,100	43,500	3,696,000	2,900	30,000	1,750,000
" 1881,	18,000	26,000	163,030	12,000	1,835,000	8,300	14,620	1,392,000

The Mint has also been very active in its coinage, as follows :

UNITED STATES MINT—PHILADELPHIA.

	Deposits.		Coinage.			
	Gold.	Silver.	Gold.	Silver.	Cents.	Total.
January,.....	\$8,209,689 ..	\$156,418 ..	\$8,052,321 ..	\$91,100 ..	\$5,000 ..	\$8,143,421
February,.....	5,244,816 ..	153,361 ..	7,438,016 ..	121,700 ..	12,000 ..	7,571,717
March,.....	6,967,387 ..	242,273 ..	5,049,327 ..	287,500 ..	9,000 ..	5,347,327
Total,.....	\$20,421,873 ..	\$552,047 ..	\$20,540,164 ..	\$500,800 ..	\$26,000 ..	\$21,067,465
" 1880, ..	2,203,056 ..	163,828 ..	2,874,174 ..	195,589 ..	77,000 ..	3,247,763
" 1881, ..	295,195 ..	236,925 ..	327,327 ..	291,000 ..	89,000 ..	707,327

The coinage at New-Orleans has continued to be in the dies of the federal government.

The depression in importations, that was so marked in February, has become more evident in March, in which the aggregate receipts of goods

* From Europe.

have been less than in any year for that month, except 1858, when the accumulations in warehouse, caused by the panic of 1857, hung over the market. The quantities of goods entered for consumption are very small, but the importation of specie has been large. The figures for the month are as follows:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK IN MARCH.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Entered for consumption, ..	\$ 7,245,526 ..	\$ 15,314,023 ..	\$ 16,163,698 ..	\$ 6,700,061
Entered for warehousing, ..	1,812,230 ..	2,804,413 ..	3,739,241 ..	3,084,187
Free goods,	2,394,743 ..	2,620,354 ..	3,592,093 ..	2,873,697
Specie and bullion,	277,203 ..	81,666 ..	85,094 ..	5,546,406
Total entered at the port, ..	\$ 11,729,702	\$ 20,820,456	\$ 23,580,126	\$ 18,204,351
Withdrawn from warehouse, ..	4,444,415	1,718,237	2,200,117	5,817,144

The warehouse operations for the month seem to have been large; about three millions were entered, and nearly six millions withdrawn. The operation was probably to withdraw those goods on which the duty was to increase after April 1st, and replace them with those on which there was to be a decline. The result is a diminution of three millions of the quantity in bond. There is a decline in the import of free goods and a large increase in that of specie. The movement since January 1st, or the third quarter of the fiscal year, has been as follows:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK FOR THREE MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Entered for consumption, ..	\$ 17,255,799 ..	\$ 46,102,196 ..	\$ 47,151,912 ..	\$ 21,882,297
Entered for warehousing, ..	5,052,301 ..	5,270,622 ..	7,863,276 ..	15,396,545
Free goods,	5,909,530 ..	7,498,796 ..	9,174,271 ..	9,011,925
Specie and bullion,	826,834 ..	245,174 ..	303,319 ..	15,082,702
Total entered at the port, ..	\$ 29,044,464	\$ 59,116,788	\$ 64,692,778	\$ 61,373,469
Withdrawn from warehouse, ..	13,682,712	5,974,505	7,502,790	14,142,145

The figures for the three months show a slight increase of goods in bond April 1st, as compared with January 1st. The importation of specie was over fifteen millions—a larger sum than was perhaps ever before imported from abroad in a similar period. The importations of goods for consumption were very small. If we take the aggregate imports for the nine months of the fiscal year we find the results as follows:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK FOR NINE MONTHS, ENDING MARCH 31.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Six months,	\$ 109,688,702 ..	\$ 91,082,433 ..	\$ 116,000,642 ..	\$ 120,542,384
January,	8,105,719 ..	19,447,962 ..	21,756,273 ..	26,827,411
February,	9,209,043 ..	18,848,370 ..	19,356,379 ..	16,341,707
March,	11,729,702 ..	20,820,456 ..	23,580,126 ..	18,204,351
Total for 9 months, ..	\$ 138,733,166	\$ 150,199,221	\$ 180,693,420	\$ 181,915,853

These importations are, in the aggregate, a little more than last year, but include \$23,248,195 of specie imported from abroad in nine months. The largest amount of specie ever before imported in a whole year was \$24,121,289, in 1847. That amount was nearly equalled in the first nine months, and will be, by far, exceeded for the whole year. The lessened amount of goods imported has, as a matter of course, shown its effect in the duties, which have been as follows:

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW-YORK.

	1859.	1860.	1861.
Six months ending Jan. 1..	\$ 15,387,614 49 ..	\$ 19,322,060 96 ..	\$ 17,637,802 21
In January.....	3,478,471 38 ..	3,899,166 17 ..	2,050,202 34
February.....	3,328,688 93 ..	3,378,043 28 ..	2,528,736 83
March.....	3,164,011 00 ..	3,477,545 74 ..	2,439,926 25

Total, nine months,..... \$25,358,785 80 \$30,076,816 15 \$24,656,667 63

The average duty on dutiable imports was 20 per cent. up to April 1st, under the tariff of 1857. The amount entered for consumption and withdrawn from warehouse in March was \$12,517,205, which gave \$2,437,926 customs, one-half of which was, on withdrawal of goods to avoid higher charges after April 1st. The result shows a decline of \$3,681,000 in duties for the quarter. The proportion of dry goods that was embraced in the above aggregate is seen in the following table. The withdrawals of dry goods prior to the operation of the new tariff were large :

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW-YORK FOR THE MONTH OF MARCH.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$ 1,070,923 ..	\$ 3,200,832 ..	\$ 2,718,762 ..	\$ 1,319,422
Manufactures of cotton.....	881,079 ..	2,546,372 ..	1,628,745 ..	642,522
Manufactures of silk.....	2,028,145 ..	2,729,037 ..	2,597,933 ..	1,648,354
Manufactures of flax.....	361,387 ..	1,119,172 ..	844,030 ..	326,280
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	352,779 ..	583,420 ..	529,953 ..	371,520

Total,.....\$4,694,313 \$10,178,833 \$8,319,423 \$4,308,098

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

Manufactures of wool.....	\$ 552,770 ..	\$ 158,687 ..	\$ 259,623 ..	\$ 1,454,908
Manufactures of cotton.....	779,075 ..	192,028 ..	336,788 ..	1,260,012
Manufactures of silk.....	550,331 ..	65,919 ..	106,413 ..	1,301,512
Manufactures of flax.....	301,285 ..	122,261 ..	91,029 ..	462,361
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	228,653 ..	62,536 ..	72,803 ..	262,266

Total,.....\$2,412,116 \$601,631 \$866,656 \$4,741,059

Add entered for consumption, 4,694,313 10,178,833 8,319,423 4,308,098

Total thrown upon market, \$7,106,429 \$10,780,664 \$9,186,079 \$9,049,157

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

Manufactures of wool.....	\$ 209,859 ..	\$ 132,723 ..	\$ 224,154 ..	\$ 452,931
Manufactures of cotton.....	254,105 ..	134,438 ..	182,654 ..	381,902
Manufactures of silk.....	133,528 ..	28,413 ..	112,344 ..	386,854
Manufactures of flax.....	137,774 ..	51,457 ..	60,304 ..	164,129
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	89,216 ..	36,103 ..	123,513 ..	142,162

Total,.....\$824,482 \$383,134 \$702,980 \$1,527,978

Add entered for consumption, 4,694,313 10,178,833 8,319,423 4,308,098

Total entered at the port., \$5,518,795 \$10,561,967 \$9,022,403 \$5,836,076

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT THE PORT OF NEW-YORK, FOR THREE MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

Manufactures of wool.....	\$ 2,450,086 ..	\$ 8,050,711 ..	\$ 8,880,598 ..	\$ 4,367,448
Manufactures of cotton.....	2,392,849 ..	8,187,441 ..	6,716,159 ..	2,051,794
Manufactures of silk.....	4,197,493 ..	9,158,666 ..	12,157,068 ..	5,336,690
Manufactures of flax.....	903,725 ..	3,111,272 ..	2,583,717 ..	960,822
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	866,402 ..	1,801,925 ..	1,706,132 ..	1,194,413

Total,.....\$10,810,555 \$30,390,015 \$32,043,674 \$13,911,167

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Manufactures of wool,.....	\$ 1,464,336 ..	\$ 529,427 ..	\$ 796,104 ..	\$ 2,927,757
Manufactures of cotton, ...	2,238,947 ..	953,658 ..	1,377,505 ..	2,676,006
Manufactures of silk,.....	1,889,397 ..	349,201 ..	657,032 ..	2,848,747
Manufactures of flax,.....	1,020,478 ..	475,162 ..	360,976 ..	1,060,278
Miscellaneous dry goods,...	618,273 ..	189,708 ..	234,612 ..	555,678
Total,.....	\$ 7,231,431	\$ 2,497,156	\$ 3,426,229	\$ 10,068,466
Add entered for consumption, 10,810,555	30,390,015	32,043,474	13,911,137	
Total thrown on market,	\$ 18,041,986	\$ 32,887,171	\$ 35,469,703	\$ 23,979,603

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Manufactures of wool,.....	\$ 640,756 ..	\$ 361,228 ..	\$ 876,629 ..	\$ 2,777,548
Manufactures of cotton,;... ..	1,170,681 ..	474,500 ..	805,434 ..	2,813,208
Manufactures of silk,.....	686,794 ..	185,108 ..	515,199 ..	2,711,770
Manufactures of flax,.....	379,310 ..	151,114 ..	185,081 ..	895,940
Miscellaneous dry goods,...	255,045 ..	92,814 ..	244,274 ..	496,236
Total,.....	\$ 3,132,586	\$ 1,264,764	\$ 2,626,617	\$ 9,664,732
Add entered for consumption, 10,810,555	30,390,015	32,043,474	13,911,137	
Total entered at the port,	\$ 13,943,141	\$ 31,654,779	\$ 34,673,091	\$ 23,575,869

The export trade shows a very different result, the amount of domestic produce sent abroad being much larger than ever before in March. At the same time the export of specie has been comparatively nominal; exclusive of specie the aggregate is larger than ever before, for March, as follows:

EXPORTS FROM NEW-YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF MARCH.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Domestic produce,.....	\$ 4,503,371 ..	\$ 5,377,840 ..	\$ 6,998,687 ..	\$ 10,580,907
Foreign mdse., (free,)...	27,590 ..	200,779 ..	844,716 ..	839,415
Foreign mdse., (dutiable)	649,899 ..	297,383 ..	285,351 ..	109,270
Specie and bullion,.....	836,194 ..	3,343,677 ..	2,381,663 ..	301,802
Total exports,.....	\$ 6,017,054	\$ 9,219,678	\$ 10,510,417	\$ 11,831,394
Total, exclusive of specie,	5,180,860	5,876,001	8,182,754	11,529,592

The operations for the three months, since January 1, maintain the same features. The specie export is mostly doubloons sent back to Havana.

EXPORTS FROM NEW-YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THREE MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Domestic produce,.....	\$ 12,421,547 ..	\$ 12,423,614 ..	\$ 17,997,216 ..	\$ 31,095,652
Foreign mdse., (free,)...	355,577 ..	508,478 ..	954,348 ..	647,160
Foreign mdse., (dutiable)	1,267,052 ..	793,550 ..	1,875,522 ..	1,734,930
Specie and bullion,.....	9,328,725 ..	8,020,792 ..	4,212,234 ..	1,463,622
Total exports,.....	\$ 23,972,901	\$ 21,746,434	\$ 25,039,320	\$ 34,941,364
Total, exclusive of specie,	14,044,176	13,725,642	20,827,086	33,477,742

If now we compare the aggregate exports for nine months, exclusive of specie, we arrive at surprisingly large figures.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Total, nine months,...	\$ 48,746,617 ..	\$ 41,720,476 ..	\$ 57,198,144 ..	\$ 93,402,176
Specie for same time,.	31,290,837 ..	21,662,564 ..	40,730,128 ..	22,075,041
Total exports,...	\$ 80,037,454	\$ 63,382,740	\$ 97,928,272	\$ 115,477,217

RAIL-ROAD, CANAL AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

RAIL-ROADS IN NORTH AMERICA.

By reports of the different rail-roads in the United States and Canadas, for the year 1860, it appears that there were in operation, January 1, 1861, 350 different rail-roads, with 127 branches, embracing 33,021 miles of road, of which 47 roads, of 1,796 miles, are leased to other companies; 23 roads, of 3,075 miles, are in the hands of receivers or bondholders; the remaining 280 roads, of 28,150 miles, being operated by the owners. The several roads, as to gauge, are divided as follows:

14 roads, of	1,777 miles,	are 6 feet 0 inches.
21 "	2,896 "	" 5 " 6 "
2 "	182 "	" 5 " 4 "
63 "	7,267 "	" 5 " 0 "
39 "	3,294 "	" 4 " 10 "
1 "	120 "	" 4 " 9½ "
210 "	17,712 "	" 4 " 8½ "

Besides the numerous city or horse rail-roads, which are generally 4 feet 8½ inches or 4 feet 10 inches, except those in Philadelphia, which are 5 feet 2½ inches. The 5 feet 6 inch gauge is used exclusively in Canada, and partially in Maine and Missouri. The two of 5 feet 4 inches are in Ohio, viz., Sandusky, Mansfield and Newark, and the Sciota and Hocking Valley. The five foot gauge is the prevailing gauge throughout the Southern States, the Isthmus of Panama and California, with but few exceptions in Texas. The one of 4 feet 9½ inches, or compromise gauge, between 4 feet 8½ inches and 4 feet 10 inches, is the Tremont and Indiana. The 6 feet, 4 feet 10 inches and 4 feet 8½ inches are scattered through the Eastern, Middle and Western States. In the early history of rail-roads in America they were laid with timbers running lengthwise with strips of iron, 3½ inches wide, nailed or spiked on the top for the wheels to run upon; they were of five feet gauge, measuring from centre to centre of the iron or strap rail, as it was called; hence the origin of the 4 feet 8½ inch gauge. At a later date, when the solid iron rail was introduced, it was with a two-inch face also, the five foot gauge measuring from centre to centre of rails; hence the origin of the 4 feet 10 inch gauge; hence the conclusion, that if our system of measuring from inside to inside of the rails had been adopted at first, the uniform gauge of this country would have been five feet, instead of being overrun with so many different gauges, and such an enormous expense of reloading and changing cars, besides a great many other disadvantages attending the break of gauges.

NOTE TO OUR SUBSCRIBERS.—Owing to the space occupied by several elaborate reports in this No., we are compelled to defer to our next (or June) No. our usual Review of the Book Trade, &c.